DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 226 459 EA 015 404

TITLE	Managing the Schools of the Future--Focus on Principals. Proceedings of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration Regional Conference (4th, Nicosia, Cyprus, January 1980).
INSTITUTION	Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration, Armidale (Australia).; Cyprus Educational Administration Society, Nicosia.
PUB DATE	80
NOTE	314 .; Some pages may reproduce poorly due to small print of original document.
PUB TYPE	Books (010) -- Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Viewpoints (120)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC13 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Administrator Role; Change Strategies; Computers; Curriculum Development; Deafness; *Educational Administration; Educational Assessment; Educational Change; Educational History; Educational Research; Elementary Secondary Education; Evaluation Methods; Foreign Countries; Formative Evaluation; *Futures (of Society); *Leadership; Measures (Individuals); National Programs; *Principals; Professional Development; Research Methodology; Self Evaluation (Groups); Technological Advancement
IDENTIFIERS	Commonwealth Council for Educ Administration; *Cyprus; India; Nigeria; Third World

ABSTRACT

The Fourth Regional Conference of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration, held in Nicosia, Cyprus, in January 1980, focused on the possible impact of foreseeable changes in educaiton on the school administrator's role. The 16 papers presented (published in this volume) addressed the development of Cyprus's dual educational system; the history and character of Nigeria's educational system; models of change, barriers to change, change strategies, and the principal's role in change; currently needed administrative competencies; the likely nature of the principalship in the year 2000; the monitoring of school performance in the future, with particular reference to the Eastern Caribbean; the characteristics of the principalship in India; the impact of computers on educational administration; the rehabilitation of the deaf in Cyprus; educational management theory and the requirements of educational management programs for principals; factors in the development of a scale for measuring principals' leadership styles and their effects; the concept of managerial discretion in the context of school system rules structures; leadership qualities needed in administrators and education officials as perceived by teachers in Cyprus; curriculum planning for primary education in Cyprus; self evaluation strategies for schools; and professional development for teachers and administrators. (PGD)

ED226459

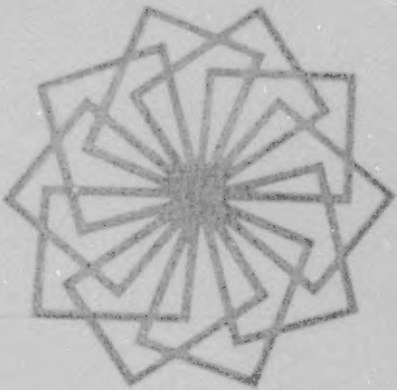
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Harry Harris

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."



FOURTH
CCEA
REGIONAL CONFERENCE

MANAGING THE SCHOOLS OF THE FUTURE - FOCUS ON PRINCIPALS

CYPRUS

EA 015 404

FOURTH
CCEA
REGIONAL CONFERENCE

MANAGING THE SCHOOLS OF THE FUTURE - FOCUS ON PRINCIPALS

NICOSIA - CYPRUS, JANUARY 1980

MANAGING THE SCHOOLS OF THE FUTURE-FOCUS ON PRINCIPALS

Proceedings of the Fourth CCEA
Regional Conference

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We wish to express our thanks to all those who helped in the organisation of the Conference. Many thanks are due also to those who helped with this publication and particularly to Costas Soteriou who read the proofs and supervised the publication.

The CEAS

Published by CYPRUS EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION SOCIETY

Copyright © 1980 COMMONWEALTH COUNCIL OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION, University of New England, Armidale, N.S.W., Australia, 2351

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopy, recording, or any information storage and retrieval system without permission in writing from CCEA.

Printed by PROODOS LTD. Tel. 62855, 66199, P. O. Box 1040, Nicosia.

CONTENTS

Page

Foreword 7

1. Welcoming address by Mr. A. Anastassiades, Chairman of CEAS. 9

2. Message by the President of the Republic Mr. Spyros Kyprianou... 11

3. Address by the Minister of Education Dr. Chr. Sofianos at the official opening. 13

4. Response at the Opening Ceremony. Dean Robin H. Farquhar. 17

5. Background to school Management in Cyprus. A. Anastassiades, Inspector General, Primary Education, Ministry of Education of Cyprus and Chairman of CEAS. 21

6. The Social Context of School management:– Changing demands of a changing society. Professor Ben Vkeje, Rector, Awka College, Nigeria. 39

7. New wine in old bottles:– managing change. Robin H. Farguhar, Dean, College of Education, University of SasKatchewan. 53

8. The present cannot wait:– Competences needed by the principal now. Dr. Francis Chetcuti, Director of Education, Malta Plemary Discussion. 81

9. The principal of the future. Dr. T.R. Bone, Principal, Jordanhil College, Glasgow. 87

10. Monitoring the performance of the schools of the future Mr. R. Nicholson, University of West Indies, Barbados 103

11. The principal in India. Dr. G. Chaurasia, Executive Director, Indian Council for Educational Administration 133

12. Technology of the future – risk or riches? Dr. W. Mellor, Monash University, Melburne, Australia. 147

Page

13. The Rehabilitation of the Deaf in Cyprus. Mr. G. Marcou, Principal, School for the Deaf, Nicosia Cyprus. .. 167

14. Management Development for School Principals. Mr. G. Williams, Sheffield City Polytechnic. 173

15. Towards a Leadership Desirability Scale. Dr. L. R. Miller, Sub Dean and Senior Lecturer, University of Queensland. L. R. Smith, Subject Master Ipswich Grammar School. 189

16. Managerial Discretion:– A Key Concept for the Principal. Head, Department of Education Management, Sheffield City Polytechnic 233

17. Leadership Qualities needed by Principals and Inspectors– opinions of Teachers in Cyprus. Dr. A. Papadopoulos, Inspector, Primary Education, Cyprus. 249

18. Rational Curriculum Planning for Primary Education in Cyprus. Michael Theodorou, Principal, Elementary Education Cyprus. 272

19. Self Education Strategies for Schools. G. Lyons, Anglian Regional Management Centre. 283

20. The Principal and Teacher Professional Development. Dr. R. Brayne, Coordinator, North Vancouver, School District, Canada. 293

21. Conference Summary. Professor Meredydd Hughes, University of Birmingham 301

FOREWORD

The Cyprus Educational Administration Society, co - operating with the Commonwealth Council of Educational Administration, organised its regional conference from 2 - 8 *January,* 1980. *The theme of the conference was "Mananging the Schools of the Future Focus on Principals".*

The conference took place in the Philoxenia hotel in Nicosia. One hundred and fifty - six distinguished intellectuals, from 15 *Commonwealth countries, who are involved in education at all levels met at the conference. The scientific speeches, which were of a high standard, as well as the discussion that followed and the group discussions, gave the chance for a fruitful exchange of opinions on the role and the contribution of the Headmaster to the schools of the future.*

Prominent lecturers on educational systems at Commonwealth Universities presented the results of their research, which on several occasions were publicly announced for the first time.

We are very honoured to be able to publish them in this book and are certain that they will contribute to a better understanding of the role of the Headmaster as it is expected to develop in the years to come.

By publishing the proceedings of the regional conference of the Commonwealth Council of Educational Administration, we aim at helping governments, educational organisations, and teachers themselves to understand the increasingly developing changes in the management of education, and take these changes into account in order to provide better education for all.

The Committee of
Cyprus Educational
Administration Society

WELCOMING ADDRESS BY Mr. A. ANASTASSIADES, CHAIRMAN OF CEAS

On behalf of the Cyprus Educational Administration Society I welcome to Cyprus all our distiguished guests, and I would like to welcome you all to this Conference.

It is an honour for us in Cyprus that such a group of distinguished people from so many countries all over the Commonwealth are gathered here for a Conference.

Cyprus is situated at the crossroads of Europe, Asia and Africa, and its position is really ideal as a meeting place for the Commonwealth Countries. We in Cyprus look forward to such a development and are very pleased because another Commonwealth event – the Commonwealth Art Festival – is to take place in Cyprus this year.

Such Conferences will enable Cyprus to strengthen its ties with the Commonwealth and become a more active and contributing member of this group of nations.

Most of the members of the Commonwealth are young nations striving for development and democracy.

To achieve this objective they are not only in need of democratic constitutions but also of educational systems which function on democratic lines.

Educational Administration Societies all over the Commonwealth with their Commonwealth Council in Australia, have an important role to play towards this end.

We hope you have a pleasant stay in Cyprus and we believe that this Conference will achieve its objectives.

MESSAGE BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC

Mr. SPYROS KYPRIANOU

It gives me great pleasure to address a cordial greeting to the 4th Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration Regional Conference. I welcome to Cyprus the delegates from friendly Commonwealth countries and wish them a pleasant stay in our island, an island small in area and population but rich in cultural heritage. In this country, which is today the victim of an inhuman Turkish invasion, aggression and occupation there has been flourishing for thousands of years a unique cultural and artistic creation, education in its general concept. I express my appreciation for the fact that Cyprus has been chosen as venue for the holding of your Conference.

The Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration is carrying out a really remarkable job both in the field of education and in the field of promotion of common Commonwealth principles and ideas and the strengthening of relations among Commonwealth members, which, in a last analysis, is a contribution to the cause of world peace. Principles and ideas taught and fostered in schools, are gradually turned into a way of life for the people and help formulate constructive attitudes and positions. The subject of this Conference, which is the administration of schools and the principles which must govern it in the light of present-day developments is also very topical and interesting. There are always basic principles which constitute the foundation of each country's education, but the rapid technical and technological progress determines to a great extent the manner of application of these principles. School principals have a most important role to play in this respect. For in their schools they are the backbone and soul of the whole educational work, both theoretical and practical.

Education in Cyprus, primary, secondary and higher, is at a very high level. But it has received most heavy blows as a result of the Turkish invasion of our island in 1974, which has since been continuing with the occupation of 40% of our territory by the Turkish troops. All our schools in the Turkish-occupied area have been seized by the Turks and pupils, students and teachers have been expelled and a number of them have been killed or are missing. Cyprus education has also its tragedy. We are striving today to rebuild our life in the free areas of our island. And a lot has been achieved both in the educational and the other fields.

I wish your Conference every success.

ADDRESS BY THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION
Dr. CHR. SOFIANOS
AT THE OFFICIAL OPENING

Your Excellency,
Honourable Chairman,
Mr. Executive Director,
Distinguished Delegates,
Dear Participants,
Ladies and Gentlemen,

It gives me great pleasure to be amongst you today and I am thankful to the Organizing Committee of the Fourth Regional Conference, convened by the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration, for giving me this opportunity to welcome and address so many distinguished people from so many Commonwealth countries.

The Ministry of Education attaches great importance and places high priority to the 1971 Singapore Declaration of Commonwealth Principles. I reiterate only the following concepts bearing on Education:–

- That Members of the Commonwealth ... encompass a rich variety of cultures, traditions and institutions.
- That by pursuing these principles, the Commonwealth can continue to influence the international society for the benefit of mankind.
- That we can overcome poverty, ignorance and disease.
- That international co-operation is essential to remove the causes of war, promote tolerance, combat injustice and secure development among the peoples of the world.

AND

- That the Commonwealth provides many channels for con-

13

tinuing exchanges of knowledge and views on professional, cultural and other issues among member states.

With a view to implementing as many of these principles as possible, we recently established in the Ministry of Education a section, within our International Relations Office, so as to deal exclusively with Commonwealth education affairs. We shall give this section every possible support for full effectiveness. The C.C.E.A. can look to this section for the practical advancement of your objectives. We recently inaugurated closer ties with the Commonwealth Foundation, so as to strengthen non-governmental organizations like yours.

A simple look at the names of Speakers, Chairmen, Reactors, Session Leaders and other Delegates shows how important this Fourth Regional Conference can, and will, be. Many of you, Distinguished Delegates, are well known to many senior Cypriot educationists, either because they have been your undergraduate or postgraduate students, or because they studied your many, diverse and penetrating publications, or by means of personal contacts at other regional or world conference. Some of you visited Cyprus before; may I state here how happy we are to see you back again. To those of you who have come to Cyprus for the first time, may I express the sincere hope that you will find your short stay here both pleasant and fruitful and that, in the end, you will see fit to come back again some other time – not in the too distant future.

Your general theme "Managing the Schools of the Future – Focus on Principles" is both very interesting and very challenging. You are all experts not only on this basic issue, but also on either fundamental educational problems. Though much has been written about managing and administering the schools of the present, the theme has not been exhausted yet. Although nobody can credit the educational future accurately, I believe it is worthwile to attempt even an approximate estimate of the near future. I also believe that the focus of this Conference on Principals has been well chosen since their role is today one of the most important roles in the overall educational structure of any Commonwealth country.

Your six sub-themes, to be handled by six able speakers, six experienced chairmen and two lively reactors, are bound to contribute not only to Commonwealth co-operation, but also to better international understanding.

Regarding the Cyprus educational system, may I say that we strive to achieve the optimum combination of centralization and decentralization, in both organization and management, and that we are trying to find a satisfactory relation between the democratization of education, social progress and the solution of fundamental human and material problems. Developing countries, especially the smaller ones – like Cyprus – are aware of the changing demands in a changing society. Perhaps educational administration and management procedures will have to vary, depending on the historical, social and cultural background and on the existing socio-economic structure in each country.

The complexity of administration *per se* and the needs of contemporary society – let alone those of the future – already impose new demands on the capacity and the training requirements of educational administrators. Perhaps the training of administrators should aim at an understanding of broad social, economic, national and international issues, besides the administrative and technical aspects of education.

It might be possible to establish the common parameters for monitoring the performance of future schools. You might possibly find that the strandardization of administrative procedure and practice are indispensable and the use of modern techniques should be a matter of top priority.

I am sure the Cypriot participants in any of the ten Interest Group Sessions will benefit from them. We shall be grateful for your comments and views on the sub-themes or Interest Group topics, tackled by Cypriots. We look forward to receiving the Conference Summary for a distribution among all school principals.

During your deliberations you might bear in mind the following: We try neither to overestimate educational theory, nor to underestimate educational practice, or vice-versa. Parents associations, teachers unions and other pressure groups in Cyprus show a keen interest in educational administration and decision-taking. An Educational Council advises the Ministry on matters of general educational policy and wider public interest. We try hard to keep up-to-date concerning at least the main contemporary concepts on educational management and administration. Our International Relations Office is doing excellent work, but we are always willing to learn – even from our own mistakes.

The barbarous Turkish invasion in July 1974, the occupation of 40 per cent of our land by Turkish troops and the displacement of 200,000 Greek-Cypriots from their homes created for us unprecedented problems in all public life, including educational management and administration. In spite of this tragedy, the attainments in the educational administration of Cyprus during the last few years have been numerous, diverse and of far-reaching importance. Many developments are still in progress. The prospects appear hopeful and we proceed with caution. Any educational help, guidance or advice from Unesco, the Council of Europe, any friendly country and, of course, any Commonwealth country will be welcome with thanks and gratitude. I am sure the Cypriot speakers and participants, including our Commonwealth Relations representative, will be glad to give you any more information on the topics I touched upon this morning.

I trust you will enjoy the receptions, the free afternoon, the hospitality of the Cypriot Participants, the Workshop, the Guided Tour of Nicosia, the ceremonies and processions at seaside towns on Epiphany Day, the evening buffet of the Nicosia Mayor, the four visits to our schools and the Evening Farewell Dinner.

Last, but not least, I wish you success in your C.C.E.A. Board Meeting, the meeting of the I.I.P. Standing Committee and, at the end of it all, a pleasant and safe return home – with many happy memories from this Conference, the People and the Republic of Cyprus.

And now, after the sincere welcome, the short address and the stated hopes for the future, I DECLARE this Fourth Regional Conference, convened by C.C.E.A., OFFICIALLY OPEN.

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION,

NICOSIA–CYPRUS.

2nd January 1980.

RESPONSE AT THE OPENING CEREMONY
DEAN ROBIN H. FARQUHAR

Dean Robin H. Farquhar
Vice-President of CCEA

Your Excellency Minister of Education,
Your Excellencies Mister Chairman,
Distinguished Colleagues,
Ladies and Gentlemen

On behalf of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration I thank you, Your Excellency for officially opening our Conference and for doing it so graciously. We certainly appreciate your supportive remarks about the Commonwealth and your thoughtful comments about the importance of educational administration within it. Your suggesting that "perhaps the training of administrators should aim at an understanding of broad social, economic, national and international issues..." strikes a very responsive chord in me and I am sure in others here as well. Certainly in these troubled times the need was even greater for such international understanding. In fact, the very assistance of the CCEA is a response to that need, and I think the presence of so many educational teachers from so many different parts of the world at this Conference gives eloquent testimony to our agreement with your insights. You are doing a great service by hosting this Conference.

Let me assure you that we are delighted to be here in the Republic of Cyprus, an island we all know as:

- a land of great, warmth and hospitality,
- a country rich in history, in culture, in beauty, and in natural resources (not the least of which are its people),
- and a crucial link between East and West for thousands of years. We are aware, as Mister Anastassiades has pointed out, that Cyprus is situated at the crossroads of Europe,

17

Asia and Africa (and let me hasten to add that we do not view it as remote from Australia, New Zealand, the Americas, or elsewhere in the Commonwealth either). The logo for this Conference is well chosen, for it symbolically places Cyprus at the centre of the Commonwealth. And certainly for the purpose of this Conference that is where it deserves to be.

We look forward eagerly to seeing as much of your country as we can and to meeting as many of your people as we can during our too short stay here. In fact, the temptation will be great to neglect our work at the Conference.

But we must not do so, for we have important work to do. We have come together for the Fourth Regional Conference of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration – and, on behalf of CCEA, let me welcome all of you to this Conference. I am sure you share my enthusiasm that Cyprus has elected to remain within the Commonwealth. You have wisely reminded us, Your Excellency, of some of the relevant Commonwealth Principles enunciated I think in the 1971 Singapore declaration – principles which help to define the *raison d'etre* of CCEA. It is encouraging to note your Ministry's commitment to these principles as reflected for example, in the recent establishment of a Commonwealth section within your International Relations Office. Your leadership by example, in this regard is appreciated.

Previous Regional Conferences of CCEA have been held in Fiji, Malaysia, and Bangladesh. Like them, this Conference seeks to stimulate and facilitate communication and cooperative efforts, among leading scholars and practitioners in Commonwealth nations sharing a particular region of the globe, although it is not limited to them (witness the typically large and spirited contingent here from Australia.).

Also like previous CCEA Regional Conferences, this one is broad enough in content that all may find something of interest and value in it, but at the same time it has an over-arching theme that links many of the sessions together so the whole may be greater than the sum of its parts.

It is appropriate, as we embark on a new decade, that our theme stresses the administration of education for the *future*; and (as you noted, Your Excellency) the particular focus on the school *principal* is well chosen, for as his Excellency the President of the

Republic noted in his statement, it is the principal (more than any other administrator) who will determine whether or not changes are, in fact, effected to help schools adapt to a future which we know will be different and which we hope will be better than the present with all of its tensions.

Our Conference program has been well planned (including some welcome opportunities to explore Nicosia and other parts of the country, and to learn something about the Cypriot educational system), and we appreciate the leadership of our friend and respected colleague, Andreas Anastassiades, who serves in the position of Chief Education Officer (Elementary) in Cyprus and who is Chairman of the primary sponsoring organization for this Conference, the Cyprus Educational Administration Society. Mr. Anastassiades has been largely responsible for the foundation and nurture of this group. I had the opportunity of welcoming him to Canada at the Fourth International Intervisitation Program in Educational Administration almost two years ago, and it is a great personal pleasure for me now to visit him and recognize the fine work he and his colleagues have done in preparing this Conference. We are most grateful to you and the CEAS, Andreas, and to the cooperative Cypriot educational organisations mentioned in the information statement we all received with our registration materials.

I wish also to pay tribute to the Commonwealth Foundation for its generous support, not only of this Conference but of CCEA in general.

And I know that you all realize CCEA wouldn't be operating at all were it not for the Herculean efforts of our Executive Director - Harry Harris - whose diplomacy, insight, and charm are doing much, I am convinced, to keep the Commonwealth together.

Harry tells me that our President, Bill Walker, is recovering with his usual mad haste and great success from his recent operation and that he is ready to take up his challenging new responsibilities as Chief Executive Officer of the Australian Administrative Staff College, an exciting organisation that some of us had an opportunity to visit at Mount Elize during the 1970 IIP. I bring you Bill's regards and his regrets; those of you who know him will appreciate how very sorry he is that he cannot be with us at this Conference, and I am sure you all join me in wishing him a full recovery and every success in his new job.

I also bring you greetings from Jack Culbutson, Executive Director of the University Council for Educational Administration. I was with Jack two weeks ago in Brazil, where we founded the Inter-American Society for Educational Administration, which we hope will become a strong sister organisation of CCEA. Jack regrets very much that he cannot be here personally, but I am delighted that he will be well represented by Dan Griffiths, Dean of Education at New York University and a leader of the UCGA Board during the crucial early years of that organisation.

So you see, Your Excellency, educational leaders have come from many parts of the world to explore your beautiful country, to enjoy your famous hospitality, and to learn from the Conference you are hosting.

We are grateful that your President has taken a personal interest in the organisation of our Conference and we sincerely thank him for his message of welcome this morning. I hope our gratitude will be conveyed to his Excellency for that and for the fact that the Government of Cyprus has placed the resources of the Public Information Office at the services of the local Conference Committee.

And we particularly appreciate knowing that you, Your Excellency, have been highly supportive both in the encouragement of the Cyprus Educational Administration Society and in the arrangements of this Conference. You have especially honoured us by your presence here in officially opening our Conference this morning. We look forward to your Reception this evening, we wish you well in your important work, and many of us plan to accept your kind invitation to return to Cyprus in the not too distant future.

Thank you.

BACKGROUND TO SCHOOL MANAGEMENT IN CYPRUS

A. Anastassiades,
Inspector General,
Primary Education,
Ministry of Education of Cyprus
and Chairman of CEAS.

Mr. Chairman,

Ladies and Gentlemen,

It is a pleasure and an honour for our society and for our country to have this Conference of the Commonwealth countries here in Cyprus. I was given the opportunity to participate in the I.I.P. organised in Canada in 1978 by the C.C.E.A. and the U.C.E.A. and I know the high quality of such Conferences.

I live in a troubled area of the World and in a small country and I realise what it means to belong to the Commonwealth – one of the biggest groups of nations which have a common language, the same ideas and principles of justice and the same ideas and principles of freedom.

In this paper I will try to describe in some detail the development of the administration of elementary education in Cyprus, both for the Greek and the Turkish Cypriots.

Any administrative system of education has its own characteristics because it results from a particular series of factors. In Cyprus the administration of elementary education has developed gradually through the years under the influence of unique conditions which existed in the island. Cyprus is a place where conservatism in education seems to be institutionalised and change appears to be slow. To trace the roots of an administrative system and follow its development helps to understand the reasons of such developments. It helps the people to understand why their system of education has a certain structure and why they may or may not preserve it or change it.

The administrative system which had gradually developed in the island was adopted later, after independence, with some alterations to fit the new conditions. The same system is now used for the administration of secondary education as well.

Education in Cyprus is young and educational administration is still younger. Schools started appearing during the last century when Cyprus was part of the Ottoman Empire. There were 83 Greek Cypriot and 65 Turkish ones, these numbers being reported by the British administration in 1879, the first year of British rule in Cyprus.

The Greek Cypriot schools were not recognised by the State and the Orthodox Church was their supreme authority. Every school had a governing body to appoint the teachers, pay their salary, and maintain the building.

The British administration made an assessment of the prevailing conditions at that time and found some schools "well attended" and some "regrettably neglected". The report to H.M. Government for the year 1879 described education in Cyprus as being of low standard "if examined according to modern ideas". The majority of the rural populations had little or no education and the schools were attended by a small fraction of the number of children of school age. There was no organisational framework and there were deficiencies in the practice of administration such as the inability of the school committees to exercise their duties properly. The British administration during the first few years looked towards the island as a whole and no separation of Greek Cypriot from Turkish Cypriot schools was contemplated. The administrative system, which was encouraged to develop, was based on local management with the people acting through their local school committees and the Government through the Commissioners and the Director of Education. In 1881 the Colonial Secretary suggested the formation of a Central Board of Education. But he did not object to a suggestion by the High Commissioner for the establishment of two Boards of Education one for the Greek Cypriots and one for the Turkish Cypriots under the chairmanship of the Chief Secretary.

Newham, the Director of Education in 1902, commenting on the administration of education in the island at that period wrote:

> The system by which the Government at the present day controls the education of the island has been a gradual growth,

springing in the first instance from the needs of the system discovered in these preliminary tours to be already, in existence; and its aim has been rather to graft onto the existing stock order and management in a spirit conforming to modern needs, leaving the actual control of the Schools in the hands of local committees in each village than to introduce a new and ready made system!

(Newham F.D. The system of Education
in Cyprus p. 411)

An administrative framework established

By the end of the 19th century with the establishment of two Boards of Education one for the Greek and one for the Turkish Cypriots two administrative systems of Education were encouraged to develop in Cyprus.

(a) There was distinct separation of the two systems. Though the two communities were living together and their schools were sometimes situated in the same neighbourhood there was no organised approach on any level between the two systems of education.

(b) Control was exercised through three bodies for each Community which were quite separate. The Boards, the District Committees and the Village Committees.

(c) The Orthodox Church and Moslem Religious Institutions in the island were important participants in the administration of education for their respective communities.

(d) Elections of new members for the three administrative bodies (The Village Committee of Education the District Committee, The Board of Education), were held every two years. This procedure could not safeguard continuity for the achievement of long term policy.

(e) The one year tenure of teachers created insecurity for them. In this way, they were forced to participate in the party politics to influence the elections of persons who would offer them prolongation of their service.

(f) The School was considered as an educational entity. It was accepted and regarded by the educational system as a community and not as a government institution. Those who were directly concerned had responsibility for its running and maintainance.

(g) The British administration in Cyprus at that period, was characterised by an attitude of toleration in matters concerning religion.

As stated by Weir:

"From the beginning a Board of Education was set up for the Mohamedan Turks and an entirely separate one for the Christian Orthodox Greeks. Conflict there has been but only political, resulting from the fact that religious leaders in Cyprus have been looked to as political leaders as well."

(Weir Education in Cyprus ... p. 22)

The favourable conditions under the British administration and the continually rising interest of the two communities Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot, for the education of their children, resulted in a steady growth of the educational system of the island. The 170 schools of Cyprus in 1881 became 610 by 1914 and 176 teachers appointed in 1881 reached the number of 740. The most serious problem resulting from the expansion of education was of an economic nature. Who could bear the burden of the expenses to run the schools, the people, the religious institutions or the Government? Who would pay the teachers' salaries?

The leaders of the Turkish Cypriots had no objection to Government intervention as long as the Government had no control of the curriculum of their schools. The leaders of the Greek Cypriots were well aware of the influence of the teacher who was sometimes the only educated person in the community and so they wanted to have him on their side.

But with the expansion of Education and the increase of expenses the Church could not afford to improve the teachers salaries and win them over. So it joined the other politicians in pressing the Government to take over the economic burden without the introduction of any new measures for increasing Government control.

Just after World War I the Government proposed a new law for education – to undertake the payment of teachers salaries and at the same time exercise more control.

The Turkish Cypriot side accepted the new proposal where as the Greek Cypriot did not. After three years, in 1923, the same law was passed by the Legislative Council for the Greek Cypriot schools. (The Legislative Council was not representatives of the Greek Cypriots because a small number of them voted during the elections).

The new laws of the nineteen twenties created a new administrative structure. The schools came directly under the Boards of Education. It was a movement towards control from a central authority. The teacher was at that time the only educated man in the village and as a political agent he was valuable to the politicians who were exclusively town dwellers. The teacher had to serve the politician for advancement in his work.

The new administrative structure brought the teacher directly under the politician and so it operated for only a few years and led the system into chaos. As a result many teachers, fed up with the new situation, approached the Government and asked that it should intervene. A new law was passed in 1929 and further steps were taken towards centralisation and more Government control.

The curriculum was left to the hands of the Boards but the appointment, transfer, promotion and payment of teachers was taken over by the Government.

The rising in October 1931

The passing of this new Law and the steps taken towards more Government control marked the beginning of stronger protests and more dissatisfaction on the part of the Church and other leaders of the Greek Cypriots against the Government. In 1931 they succeded in mobilising the people and a crowd of several thousands, mostly students of secondary schools, marched against the Government House and set it on fire. This rising spread to other places in the island but there was no evidence that the outbreak was premeditated or prearranged. The most active Church leaders were deported and eleven school teachers who took part in the rising were dismissed.

Alastos, a Greek Cypriot historian, commenting on the events of that period, writes that the British Government could follow one of two roads. The one to find remedies for the situation and the other was the road of repression. It followed the road of repression.

Persianis, an Inspector of Secondary Education commenting, on the same problem, points out that the British Government after 1931 followed a policy of integration and assimilation.

Weir, an American Headmaster, discussing the same problem, writes that Government control in Education was a problem not only confined to Cyprus but also in the leading European countries such as France, Germany and Britain. However, the problem was seen by the Cypriot leaders from only one point of view "the tightening of the grip of a foreign power" while they should see it as "the encroachment of the State on the area occupied exclusively by the private citizens".

It seems that the road of repression of Alastos and the road of assimilation and integration of Persianis have certain similarities though they are different from the "encroachment of the State on the area occupied exclusively by private citizens" of Weir.

One thing however becomes clear through all these years. The partnership system which started towards the end of the 19th century could grow and develop into a democratic system of education with more participation of the people. For example the District Committees of Education could develop into Local Educational Authorities etc. On the contrary the policy followed by the Greek Cypriot leaders had other results such as the following:

First, a gradual and continuous increase of the control of the administration of education by the British Government.

Second, the development of a centralised not democratic system of education.

Third, the stabilising by the Turkish minority of its separate institutions without the establishment of any intercommunal ones on any level and,

Fourth, the two communities were deprived of the chances of gaining experiences in matters of the administration of their education.

After the rising in 1931 the British Government introduced new measures for the control of elementary education. The Governor became the central authority for all matters relating to education and he was charged with the control and "the excercise of all powers connected with education."

The Elementary Education Law of 1933 may be considered as the natural development of the elementary Education Law of 1929 – Under the Law – the process of centralisation was carried to its natural conclusion and Government assumed final responsibility in educational matters (Report of the Department of Education 1934 p.6).

The Education of Teachers. It was organised on an intercommunal basis. The teachers of Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot children were educated for the first time in the same school.

Dr. G. F. Sleight, as the first principal of the T.T. College and as Director of Education later introduced into the island the progressive movement of education. He improved the role of the teacher and his work in the classroom. He raised the status of the teacher and that of the Headmaster which existed only in name. Other steps taken towards improvement were the offering of grants from the colonies revenue to improve the work and conditions in the school and the allocation of money to be distributed among particularly poor communities for the construction of new buildings.

The Curriculum. The curriculum in use in the Greek Cypriot school was the one prepared in 1898. The curriculum in the Turkish Cypriot elementary schools until 1935 was the same as the one used in the schools of Turkey. During the decade following the revolution of Attaturk in Turkey, the changes in the Turkish Cypriot schools were slow and lagged behind those in Turkey. The textbooks received from Turkey were more secular and more pro-Turkish. In the Report of the Department of Education 1932-1933 it was stated that the curricula in the Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot schools,

- have changed little in the last 35 years. They suffer much from being too theoretical or elaborate; the methods of teaching are also old-fashioned and consist largely of making pupils learn their books by heart.

(Report of the Dept. of Education
1932-33 p. 4)

- these curricula had not even kept pace with developments in these countries and they took little account of the Special Conditions of Cyprus.

(Report of the Dept. of Education
1934-35 p. 35

The new curriculum prepared in 1935 was the same for all the elementary schools of the island. The language in the Greek Cypriot and Maronite schools was Greek and in the Turkish Cypriot, Turkish.

The teaching of the English Language was introduced for the classes five and six of the elementary school for the first time.

Another new development at that time, was the re-education of the inspectorate. In 1946 a scholarship scheme was inaugurated and its objective was to train the members of the Education Department. At the same time summer courses were organised for teachers. The first one in 1948. Gradually they were increased and the number of teachers who participated was also increased.

Efforts to change the centralised system 1956-1960

After 1956 and up to independence in 1960 there were some efforts to decentralise the system as they were called.

Up to 1956 the administration of education in the island was divided into two sections, the elementary education for all communities and the secondary education for all communities. The new division was based on the communal structure of the island. Thus the two systems of Education in the island which were meeting in the Education Department by the new arrangements, they were set apart.

> Below the level of Deputy Director, educational Administration was divided between three officers; A Greek Cypriot Education Officer was responsible for the administration of Greek Cypriot elementary and secondary education, and a Turkish Cypriot Education Officer was responsible for the administration of Turkish Cypriot elementary and secondary education, while an overseas officer took over the administration of all Government educational institutions and intercommunal schools. The administration of Examinations and Student Services continued to be carried out by an overseas Education Officer.
>
> (Report of the Dept. of Education
> 1956-1957 p. 2)

The school buildings and the accounts remained common to both communities and their staff was composed of Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot officers. District Education Offices were established in all the towns of the island with one District Education Officer, one Greek Cypriot Assistant Inspector of Elementary Schools, one Turkish Cypriot Assistant Inspector of Elementary Schools, one Inspector of School Buildings who could be of either community, one Greek and one Turkish Cypriot clerk.

The administrative function of the Dept. of Education was separated from its inspectorial. The inspectors were freed from all administrative duties. A chief Inspector for Greek and a chief Inspector for Turkish schools were appointed and the total establishment of the Inspectorate was increased from 24 to 52. The two branches of inspectors, one for elementary and one for secondary education were retained, but some subject specialists were responsible for schools of both types.

A new Teachers' Training College opened in Nicosia in 1958. All student, teachers, Greek and Turkish, men and women were transferred to the new building.

A new system of transfers was introduced based on new regulations.

A new system of promotions to elementary headships was also introduced. It included definite qualification for promotion to Headmaster either Grade A or Grade B. Vacant posts were to be advertised and eligible candidates were to be interviewed by Departmental Selection Boards. The large schools of eight or more teachers were to have permanent headships.

The division of Education for administrative purposes by community, was introduced in 1958. It met strong opposition from the Greek Community. The Director of Education invited the two Boards of Education – Greek and Turkish – and informed them that the Chief Education Officers in charge of the Greek and Turkish Sections of the Dept. would be instructed to follow as far as possible the advice of their Boards of Education in all educational matters. The Turkish Education Board welcomed the proposal while the Greek Board resigned. It was stated that these efforts were intended to break the rigid centralisation which remained in force since 1933. But was this really decentralisation. It was rather a breaking of the centralised system into smaller centralised units. The partners were all appointed. Partnership should be built into the structure of the system which again should be based on democratic principles.

Cyprus becomes an Independent Democratic Republic

In 1959 after the London and Zurich Agreements, Cyprus became an independent state with Greece, Turkey and Britain acting as guarantors of its independence, its territorial integrity and its constitution. Cyprus was proclaimed a republic and subsequently became a member of the British Commonwealth and a member of the United Nations.

The Constitution of the New Republic in relation to education provided for the establishment of two separate Communal Chambers - one Greek and one Turkish. The other small minorities in the island - the Maronites and the Armenians - were given the option to decide which of the two communal chambers they preferred. Both minorities chose the Greek Communal Chamber.

The two Communal Chambers - Greek and Turkish - were elected separately by their respective communities. They were sovereign bodies and under Article 87 of the Constitution they had competence to exercise within the limits of the Constitution "legislative power solely with regard to the following matters":

(a) All religious matters

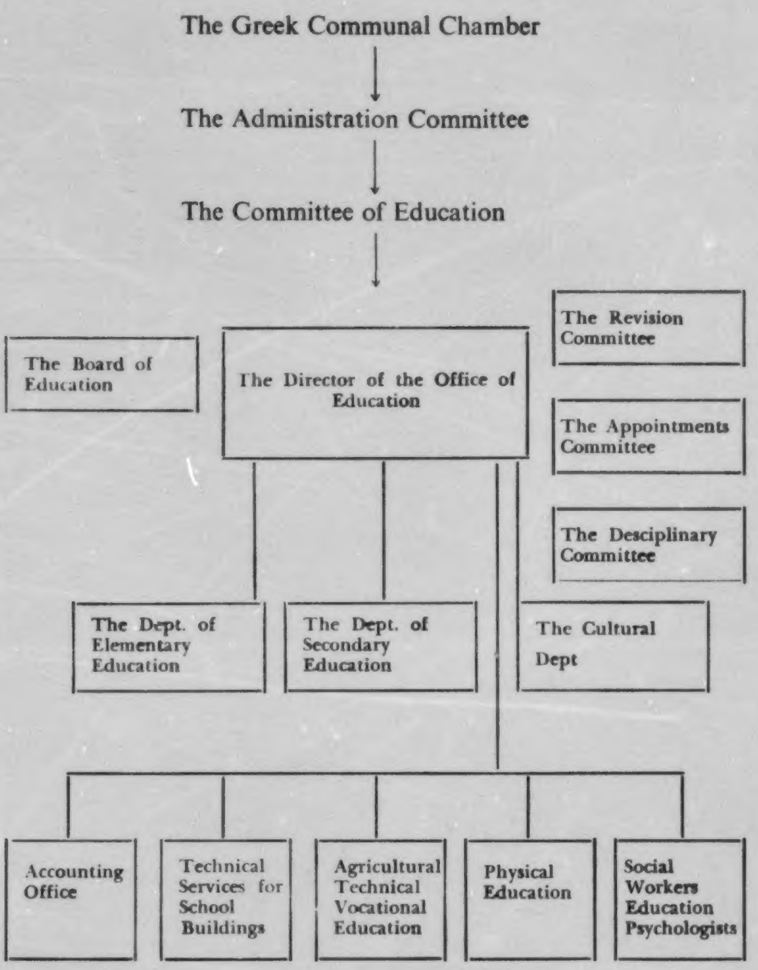
(b) All educational, cultural and teaching matters

(c) Personal status

(d) In matters relating to co-operatives and municipalities.

The Structure of the Greek Cypriot Office of Education

The Greek Communal Chamber organised its various services under its jurisdiction. The Office of Education was organised in the following way:

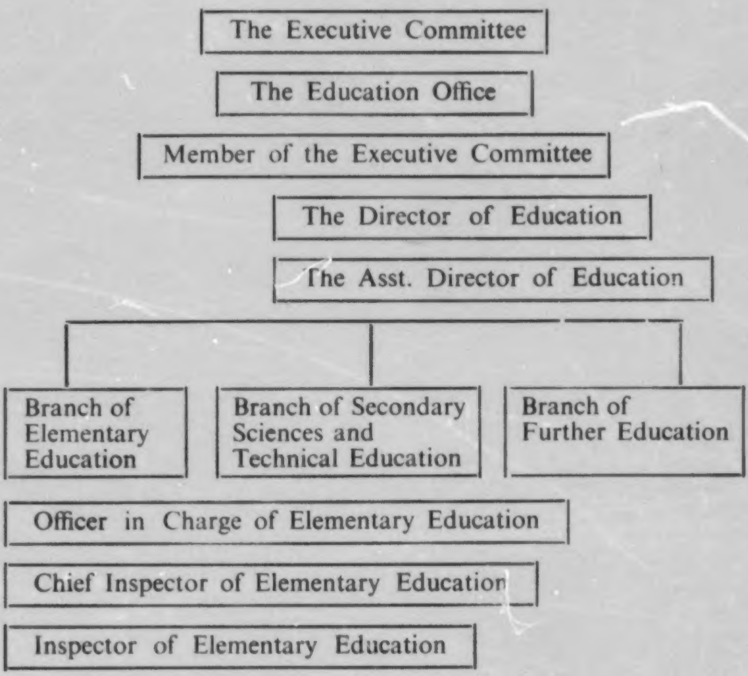

The Greek Communal Chamber
The Administration Committee
The Committee of Education
The Board of Education
The Director of the Office of Education
The Revision Committee
The Appointments Committee
The Desciplinary Committee
The Dept. of Elementary Education
The Dept. of Secondary Education
The Cultural Dept
Accounting Office
Technical Services for School Buildings
Agricultural Technical Vocational Education
Physical Education
Social Workers Education Psychologists

When the Greek Communal Chamber took over responsibility on education the administration of Education continued to be centralised and the school to be considered as a government and not as a community institution. The Greek Communal Chamber adopted the system of appointment of village and Town School Committees and the system of delegation of power from one central authority. There were certain minor amendments to the Law of 1933 to suit the changing social conditions.

The Turkish Elementary Education under the Turkish Communal Chamber

The Turkish Communal Chamber organised various services under its jurisdiction. The structure of the Turkish Office of Education was the following:

The Turkish Communal Chamber


The Executive Committee
The Education Office
Member of the Executive Committee
The Director of Education
The Asst. Director of Education
Branch of Elementary Education
Branch of Secondary Sciences and Technical Education
Branch of Further Education
Officer in Charge of Elementary Education
Chief Inspector of Elementary Education
Inspector of Elementary Education

The Greek Cypriot Elementary Education Since 1965 under a Ministry of Education

In December 1963 disturbances broke out in Nicosia and other parts of Cyprus between Greek and Turkish Cypriots. The Turkish Members of the House of Representatives left their seats in the House and other Officials in the service of the Government left their posts. This was the beginning of the separation of the two communities. The invasion and occupation of the northern part of Cyprus by the Turkish Armed Forces during the summer of 1974 brought about the complete separation of the two communities. For this reason it has not been possible for one living in the non occupied part of the island to obtain reliable information on the administration of the Turkish Cypriot education after 1963.

In 1965 after the separation of the two communities the Greek Communal Chamber requested the House of Representatives to take over its responsibilities. One of the reasons put forward for such a decision was its financial difficulties.

By a new law a Ministry of Education was established, the Minister of Education being appointed by the President of the Republic. Under these new arrangements, Greek Cypriot Education became one of the many services of the Government unlike the situation under the Greek communal Chamber where it was a separate entity.

The new Law provided for the establishment of an Educational Services Commission. Its members were appointed by the President of the Republic. Its duties were to appoint, transfer, and promote teachers and inspectors. It also had the authority to take disciplinary measures, including dismissal, against any such officer.

The provisions for the establishment of a Ministry of Education and an Educational Services Commission did not affect the structure of the Education Department.

Some developments in the administration of the Greek Cypriot Elementary school system

The education of teachers

The course for the training of teachers continued to be of two years duration until 1964-65 when it was extended to three years. Since 1967-68 an allowance per month is paid to each student in the teachers' Training College. Within the Academy of Teachers as the T.T.C. is called, a course is organised for the preparation of nursery school teachers.

Teachers' Salaries

Teachers salaries have much improved in the last decade. During the period 1967-1972 they were increased by 35%. Another important increase was agreed last month between the Government and the Teachers' Union. The teachers have also gained a number of fringe benefits such as rent allowance, free medical treatment and travelling expenses to attend in service training courses.

Career Profile

Teachers in the Greek Cypriot schools have very few chances of promotion. The ratio of promotion was 1 :5.69 a few years ago. As a result the morale of the teacher tends to be low and the teacher be very sensitive to promotion procedures. Promotion prospects for women are normally worse than those for men. Promotion to inspector is normally confined to men.

Wedell Prof. from Manchester studied the system in 1971.

The career profile for elementary teachers he prepared is the following. There are not any serious alterations from that time.

Section A

	Men Completed years of service	Age	Women Completed years of service	Age
1. Entry into service	0	23	0	21
2. Confirmation or completion of probation period	2	25	2	23
3. Promotion to post of Teacher A (subject to efficient service)	10	33	10	31
4. Promotion to post of headmaster	14	37	14	35
Section B				
5. Promotion to post of headmaster A	17	40	17	38
6. Promotion to post of inspector	24	47	24	45

(Wedell E.G. Teachers and Educational Development Unesco Paris 1971 p. 19)

The role of the headmaster

The schemes of service for the headmaster of the elementary school refer to his responsibility for the smooth and efficient administration of his school and to his teaching duties.

The two dimensions of the role of the headmaster, the administrative and the supervisory, extend over the teachers within his school.

The Inspectors of elementary education in Cyprus in a discussion on the role of the headmaster pointed out that headmasters tended to show "undecisiveness and lack of initiative". These findings are in line with the conclusions of Professor Wedell who administered a questionnaire to all inspectors and senior officials of the Ministry of Education. He found out that the most important cause of deficiencies in the quality of teaching, in the opinion of the inspectors and according to his own personal impression was the lack of leadership by headmasters. Wedell goes on to state that though the role of the headmaster as leader and innovator is recognised by the administrators it is not widely practised.

In a centralised system of education all decision making on matters of importance and direction comes from the top. For the headmaster the problem is not ability to show initiative and leadership fo solve the problems of his school but rather lack of the administrative framework and structure in which he will be able to function properly and fully.

Mackinon in his Politics of Education compares the centralised system to a convoy in peacetime.

> Too many units are proceeding at far less than their capacity and too many are struggling along a valiant but vain effort to keep up. They are so accustomed to receive orders from shore that many of them have lost their sense of direction and confine themselves to keeping their places and doing what they are told.

(Mackinon politics of Education.

Toronto Press 1960 p. 78)

Administration of secondary education

1. The administration of Greek Cypriot Secondary Schools

The British Administration in Cyprus showed little interest in secondary education in the last decades of the 19th century and the first decades of this century.

In 1936 the Government proposed a subsidy scheme by which the secondary schools which would accept Government subsidy would be under the educational and financial control of the Government. Few schools accepted the scheme and became Aided secondary schools. The majority continued to be fee paying schools administered by School Committees and supported in many ways by the Church.

From 1936 to the end of British rule in Cyprus there was a hard struggle between the Government and the church of Cyprus over the control of secondary Education. In 1952 the struggle reached a climax when the Government once again proposed its scheme for Public Aided Schools. But again the School Committees refused Government aid and control.

So secondary schools continued to be in the hands of Local authorities during the whole period of the British administration in Cyprus.

2. The administration of Turkish Cypriot Secondary Schools

The only secondary Turkish Cypriot school in Nicosia in 1878 was governed by the Ottoman Government from Constantinople. It was taken over by the British administration and it was turned into a kind of T.T. College. Later it was called Turkish Lycée. The Governing Body of the school was composed of representatives of the Government, of Evkaf (Moslem Religious Foundation) and of the Moslem Community. The same Governing Body controlled another Turkish Cypriot Secondary School for girls established later in Nicosia. All Turkish secondary schools accepted Government aid in 1936 and became Public aided schools.

The Turkish community entered the Republic in 1960 with five secondary schools and seven middle schools.

E. Administration of Technical Schools

Technical education came from the very start under Government control. They were schools established after World War II.

After independence with the establishment of the two Communal Chambers, secondary schools came under the control of the respective Chamber for each community. The administration for elementary education inherited from the British Administration was extended to cover the secondary schools as well. The secondary schools became governmental institutions and quickly lost their individual character and prestige.

As a Conclusion

In Cyprus two administrative systems of Education were established based on the two religious in the island. The two systems were gradually developed and stabilised due to political reasons which existed in Cyprus.

The two administrative systems were centrally controlled and the participation of the people became negligible. No intercommunal bodies or organisations were established locally or centrally for the exchange of ideas regarding the education of young Cypriots. On the contrary separate organisations were developed. The language of the one community was not taught in the schools of the other and thus communication became difficult and separation worse.

After Independence the two Communal Chambers continued to keep apart and they were unable to develop a system of administration with participation of the people on the local level. They also failed to establish or encourage any intercommunal organisations, governmental or nongovernmental for the exchange of ideas regarding education or the education in Cyprus.

Both Communal Chambers adopted the Centralised system inherited from the British administration. The system has been developed to fit the needs of the colonial times and had a lot of limitations.

The intervention of a foreign power in the problems of Cyprus, the division of the island and the expulsion from their homes of about two hundred thousand people make the need for the development of a new system of educational administration more necessary more urgent for the Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots as well.

A new democratic system of education will help the young generation to understand the problem of Cyprus and find ways to communicate and trust each other and develop beyond their national feelings other shared feelings and values for the benefit of all and for the good of Cyprus.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. Anastasiades: The Development of Educational Administration for Elementary Education in Cyprus from 1878. An extensive list of references is appended to the above study.

THE SOCIAL CONTEXT OF SCHOOL MANAGEMENT:

CHANGING DEMANDS OF A CHANGING SOCIETY

Professor Ben Ukeje,
Rector, Awka College, Nigeria.

Education everywhere is inevitably influenced by the political, social, economic, religious climates of the time and place.

Nigeria is a Federation of 19 States and a Federal Capital territory. She achieved the States of an independent nation in October 1960. The estimated population is around 80,000,000 Africans.

Organized or Western form of school education in Nigeria started with the coming of the Christian Missionary groups into the country around the middle of the 19th Century. Missionary activities actually started with the arrival of the Wesleyan Methodist Society in the year 1842. They opened the first known school in the country in the year 1843. Other Missionary Societies followed with the result that by 1900 there were at least ten different Missionary Societies from Europe and America operating in the country. Opening Schools was their major function since it was found to be an easy method of proselytizing. The most popular of these Missionary bodies in terms of educational activities include: The Roman Catholic, The Church Missionary Society (Anglican), The Wesleyan Methodist, the United Presbyterian Church of Scotland, the Southern Baptists Convention of the United States and the Sudan Interior Mission of the United States.

The colonization of Nigeria came after the arrival of some of the Missionaries. This was in the year 1831 when the then King of Lagos was defeated by the British. The sovereignty of Nigeria was, however, not surrendered to the British until 1861.

The British Colonial Administration did not participate in education until 1872 when it provided a grant of 1160 to each of the three major Missionary bodies carrying out educational activities in the then Colony and Protectorate of Lagos. Before this time the Missions established and managed the schools on their own, generally, however, with local contributions from chiefs and other members of the communities.

By 1882 the British Administration enacted the first Education Ordinance (Law) in Nigeria. By this time the Lagos Colony was administered jointly with the Gold Coast (Chana) Colony, hence the Ordinance covered the two territories. The Ordinance, reflecting the needs of the time, made provisions for the establishment, for the first time in the history of Nigeria, a Central Board of Education. The Board's membership comprised the Governor, the Members of the Executive Council and not more than four other nominated members. In short the Board was composed of Government Officials and nominated members. There were no elected members. The primary objective of this early participation of the Imperial Colonial Administration in education was the necessity to control the educational activities of the rival Missionary Societies. Thus the Central Board was empowered to establish Local Boards of Education to advise the Administration on the opening of Government Schools and to recommend the Mission Schools for the receipt of Government Grants-in-aid for teachers salaries and buildings. There was also a provision in the Ordinance for the establishment of an Inspectorate, again, for the purpose of checking the increasing educational activities of the Christian Missions. Thus one Rev. Metcalfe was appointed Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools for the West African Colonies. The arrangement then was that the Christian Missions owned and managed the Schools while the Government Inspectors inspected the schools to ensure compliance with laid down regulations.

Following the separation of Lagos from the Gold Coast in 1886 and the establishment of Colony and Protectorate of Lagos thereafter, the first purely Nigerian Education Ordinance was introduced in 1887. This again provided for an official Central Board of Education. It tried to regulate teachers by classifying them into four categories, namely: School Masters, Assistant Teachers, Pupil Teachers, and Monitors. This Ordinance was followed in 1892 by the appointment of a Nigerian, Henry Carr, as the first ever Inspector of Schools for the Colony and Protectorate of Lagos. Among other things, the Ordinance made provision for the use of the Vernacular as the medium of instruction in the schools. This was again a reflection of the emerging needs of the time.

In 1900 the Protectorates of Northern and Southern Nigeria were created thereby demarketing, apart from the Southern Cameroon, the geographical entity that is today known as Nigeria. By 1901 the first Government School throughout Nigeria was established in Benin City. By 1914 the Colony and Protectorate of Northern Nigeria was amalgamated with the Colony and Protectorate of Southern Nigeria to form one country – Nigeria.

These rapid political developments were followed by equally rapid educational developments. In 1901 the first Government elementary school throughout Nigeria was established in Benin City. In 1903, with increased Governmental participation in education and the general rapid expansion by the Missionary Societies, the First Department of Education in the country was established. A Director of Education, four European Education Officers, and a handful of West Indians Education Officers were appointed to man the new Department. These engaged themselves in the formulation of educational policies and the supervision of the educational activities of the Christian Missions.

Following the creation of the Colony and Protectorate of Southern Nigeria in 1906, an Education Ordinance covering the new territory was introduced in the year 1908. A new Department of Education was created. The staff consisted of a Director, four Superintendents of Schools, and four School Masters – all Europeans. Three Provincial Boards of Education were created to correspond to the three divisions into which the new territory was divided, namely: Western, Central and Eastern Provinces. The Provincial Boards, among other things, formulated policies for the management of schools within the province.

Educational expansion, due to local pressure, had progressed to the point that by 1912 there were 91 Mission and Private Schools in receipt of Government grants in the Colony and Protectorate of Southern Nigeria. By the same time Government had established directly some 59 primary schools. There were at the same time one government secondary school and four assisted mission secondary schools.

With the Amalgamation of the Southern and Northern Protectorates in 1914 Sir Frederick Lugard became the Governor General and Commander-in-Chief of the Colony and Protectorate of Nigeria. He was very much interested in education. His educational policies, as outlined by Margery Perham (1960:506) include: (i) the strengthening of government control of education;

(ii) more government schools; (iii) closer liaison with and grants-in-aid to mission schools; (iv) a government schools inspectorate; and (v) emphasis on character training through religious and secular moral education.

By 1916 a new Education Ordinance was introduced embodying Lugards policies and particularly aimed at increasing the cooperation between the Government and the Missionary Bodies in educational provision and management. Lugard desired to unite the country not only politically and administratively but educationally. He tried to transfer to education the concept of Dual Control and Indirect Rule in Civil Administration.

Following the Advisory Committee Memorandum of 1925 an Education Ordinance was introduced in 1926. The Ordinance again made provision for a Central Board of Education consisting of the Director of Education, the Deputy Director, the Assistant Director, and, for the first time, not less than ten representatives of the Missions and other educational agencies working in the Colony and Protectorate of Southern Nigeria. Thus this was the first representative Board of Education, again, reflecting the new awakening at the time.

In 1927, as a further attempt to control the expansion activities of the Missions and other Voluntary Agencies, a scheme for the creation of Supervisory and Management Personnel was established. By this scheme each of the Voluntary Agencies or Missions was obliged to appoint full-time Supervisory staff for other schools.

By 1930 another controlling device was introduced in the form of Government Visiting Teachers. These were selected from the ranks of Government Teachers. Neither the Visintg teachers nor the Voluntary Agency Supervisors received any special training for their specialized duty. The visits of the Visiting teachers were always a source of anxiety for the headmasters and the proprietors of the schools. The visits, as it were, were largely designed to find faults with the schools. Everybody must behave his best during such visits. But the headmasters invariably received both oral and written tirades for one fault or the other. Despite all these controlling devices schools continued to grow.

By 1929 the Departments of Education of the Northern and Southern Protectorates were amalgamated. In that year there were throughout Nigeria only 49 Government Primary Schools, and

6 Native Authority Schools (all in the North), with a total enrolment of 10,649 while at the same time there were 269 Mission or private assisted primary schools with a total enrolment of 12,520 and 2440 unassisted schools with a total enrolment of 81,154. There were also two Government Secondary Schools, one for boys and one for girls with enrolments of 142 boys and 39 girls respectively. The missions then had some 17 assisted secondary schools with a total enrolment of 442 boys and 11 girls.

In the year 1930, E.R.J. Hussey became the first Director of Education for the whole country following the amalgamation of the Departments in 1929. He prepared a *Memorandum on Educational Policy in Nigeria* which he sought to expand and reorganize the educational system. Essentially he tried to change the existing 8-4 system into a 6-6 system. The Missions rejected his proposals and the change affected only Government schools. This then introduced the existence of two systems of education and management - one for the Government Schools and the other for the Mission Schools.

In 1946, following the Second World War, Nigeria had her first Constitution. By this Constitution the country was divided into three political Units or regions, namely: Eastern Northern and Western. In the same year the first National Plan (Ten Year Plan) was introduced. It contained Ten Year Education Plan which called for a type of education more suitable to the needs of the country and controlled expansion within financial limits.

In 1947, a memorandum, largely a scheme to implement the plan, was introduced. The memorandum provided for four Advisory Boards of Education - one for each of the three regions and the fourth as a Central Board for the whole country. At this time, the end of the Second World War, there was increased political awareness and nationalism. Hence 1947 Memorandum made adequate provision for local participation in the management of education. Thus it provided for the creation of Local Education Committees in each of the 27 Provinces into which the country was then divided. These Committees were to become Local Education Authorities for the areas. These authorities formulated educational policies and planned for educational expansion within their areas of jurisdiction. This was largely the state of the administrative control and management of education until 1951 when education, by law, became a regional function.

By the 1951 Constitution Nigeria became a Federation of three regions. There was provision for an elected representative government. The Office of the Director of Education which was created in 1929 with Hussey as the first Director of Education was abolished and was replaced with that of the Inspector General of Education. The main functions of the Inspector General was to ensure coordination in the system and the observance of the Education Code. He was assisted by two Chief Inspectors of Education and four Advisers – one each for Women's Technical, Rural and Adult Education.

For the first time a Ministry of Education was created in each of the three regions with a Minister as its Chief Executive. A Director of Education was also appointed for each region as the professional head of the Ministry. The Director in each region was assisted by a staff comprising a Deputy Director, three Inspectors of Education and one Chief Women Education Officer.

Under this scheme which came into being after a representative government had been in office, the Minister formulated Education Policies within the framework of the Ordinance while the Director and his staff executed the policy. The Voluntary Agencies owned and managed their schools but in accordance with the provisions of the Ordinance. Thus the Voluntary Agencies recruited, trained and employed their own teachers under their own scheme of service. The Governments paid grants-in-aid to the Voluntary Agencies and managed directly the few Government Schools. The Inspectors inspected the schools, to ensure compliance.

With regional autonomy came regional variations in educational management and, in fact, Three System of Education. Following the creation of regional Departments of Education, new Education Laws were introduced in each region. There were the Western Regional Education Law 1954, the Eastern Regional Education Law 1956, and the Northern Regional Education Law, 1956. Each of the new regional Education Law made provision for the establishment of a regional Board of Education. There was, however, a Central Board for the whole Nigeria. The Boards were charged with the primary function of advising their respective Ministers of Education on matters connected with educational theory and practice. Thus one major outcome of the 1951 constitution and the establishment of representative regional Governments was the corresponding establishment of three regional systems of education.

With the Development of more articulate Local Governments by this time and as a desirable condition for the implementation of the emerging system of Universal primary education also at the time, Local Education Committees were established in the regions. By 1958 the Western region had developed some 58 of such Local Education Committees with substantial measure of responsibility.

At the regional Departments of Education new administrative changes were made to reflect the new needs and new demands. In 1956, in the eve of the introduction of Universal Primary Education, the Eastern Region abolished the posts of Director and Deputy Directors of Education. They were replaced with those of Chief Inspector of Education and Chief Executive Officer, respectively. Four Inspectors of Education were appointed each in charge of primary, secondary, Teacher Training and Technical Education. Also a Chief Women Education Officer, a Rural Education Officer and a Rural Adult Education Officer were appointed. These clearly reflected the changes, the needs, the demands and the mood of the time. A Chief Women Education Officer became necessary at this time in order to stimulate interest in women education and the Rural Education Officer was intended to stimulate interest in scientific agriculture.

Similar changes occured in the other two regions. In those regions, however, the Deputy Directors of Education became the Directors of Education.

Tremendous and far-reaching expansion in education took place during the period of representative Government (1951-1960). For instance the primary School population in the whole country rose from 626,000 in 1947 to 2,912,619 in 1960. That is over 368 per cent increase in a little over a decade. In 1960 Nigeria achieved political independence. Thereafter educational activity became an instrument of national policy and the expansion became phenomenal. The primary school population rose from 2,912,619 in 1960 to 4,768,132 in 1973 and to 10,104,670 in 1977/78 session. And this has been estimated to be over 20,000,000 by 1985. Similarly University education has increased from 148 in 1948 to 27,025 in 1974/75 session and to some 53,000 in 1978/79 session. The number of Universities increased from one in 1948 to 13 in 1977/78 session. These changes have implied corresponding rapid changes in the administration and management of Education over the years.

The Nigerian Civil War (1967-70) and other political changes also tremendously affected the administration of Education in the

Country. From Independence in 1960 Nigeria moved from a Federation of three Regions to that of twelve States in 1967 and now nineteen States.

Before the Civil War the management of primary and secondary schools remained the responsibility of the Voluntary Agencies, Private individuals and Local Government Authorities. The various governments of the Federation also owned and managed a few such institutions. The Voluntary Agencies and the private individuals received grants-in-aid from the Government and charged fees to supplement. This was a period of dual control or partnership. The management functions of these bodies include:

(i) Selection and admission of students into the institutions;

(ii) recruitment, appointment, posting, promotion, transfer and discipline of staff;

(iii) payment of staff salaries and allowances;

(iv) provision of accommodation – classrooms, dormitories, laboratories, libraries, staff quarters and offices;

(v) development of curricula;

(vi) school supervision; etc.

At the end of the devastating Nigeria Civil War (1967-70) and with the attendant destruction of over 50 per cent of the school buildings in the war affected areas, the Military Regime created the opportunity and the atmosphere for a drastic action in regard to the nagging problem of the control and management of educational institutions in the country. Accordingly by the Public Education Edict, 1970 the Government of the then East Central State (the major theatre of the war) took over the ownership, control, management and supervision of all primary and post-primary (secondary, teacher training colleges, technical schools) Schools in the State. In other words, the State took over from the Voluntary Agencies – the Christian bodies and individuals – the ownership, control, management and supervision of all the schools with the view to securing central control and integrated system of education which is to guarantee, as the Edict put it, "uniform standards and fair distribution of educational facilities and reduce the cost of running the schools".

By this Edict, which was thus far, the boldest and most far reaching governmental act with regard to the management of education in the country, a State School System emerged. This necessitated the creation of official or statutory organs of management to replace the Voluntary Agencies. Two bodies were created for this purposes – a State School Board at the State Central Office level and Divisional School Boards for each of some 33 Administrative Divisions into which the State was then divided.

The membership of the State School Board consisted of a Chairman to be appointed by the Administrator (Governor) and seven other members "so appointed as may appear to the Administrator to be representative of various interests in education". The Chairman and two others were full-time members while the other remaining five members were part-time members. The Permanent Secretary in the Ministry of Education was an ex-officio member of the Board. Terms of office of the appointed members was three years in the first instance and they were to be eligible for re-appointment. The Administrator was to appoint a senior professional officer in the Ministry of Education to act as the Secretary to the Board. This was therefore completely an officially appointed rather than an elected Board. The Board was charged with the following functions:

(i) management of all post-primary schools or institutions;

(ii) appointment, promotion, transfer and discipline of teachers in post-primary schools or institutions;

(iii) consultation with and advising the Ministry upon such matters connected with educational policy, theory and practice as it thinks fit and upon any question referred to it by the Ministry;

(iv) coordination of the activities of the Divisional Boards.

The Edict also empowered the State School Board to appoint a Board of Governors in each of the post-primary schools in the State. Such Boards of Governors shall see to the general management of the schools. The membership of each Board of Governors shall consist of:

(i) a Chairman to be appointed by the Commissioner for Education;

(ii) a representative of the Ministry of Education;

(iii) a member who shall represent the founder or former proprietor of the school;

(iv) three representatives of the community in which the school is situated, who shall be appointed by the Commissioner; and

(v) the principal of the school who shall be the Secretary to the Board.

The membership of each of the 33 Divisional Boards consisted of a Chairman and not more than five other members appointed by the Administrator. The Chairman shall be full-time while the other members shall be part-time. The Administrative Officer in-charge of each Division shall be ex-officio member of the Divisional Board while the Divisional Educational Officer, representing the Ministry of Education in the Division, shall be the Secretary to the Board.

The functions of the Divisional School Boards were outlined by the Edict as follows:

(a) to appoint, promote, transfer, discipline and dismiss teachers and other staff required to be employed at or for the purposes of a State primary school;

(b) to maintain premises forming part of or used in connection with any such school;

(c) to acquire on behalf of the Administrator and to obtain equipment, furniture and other movable property required for the purposes of any such school;

(d) to provide recreational facilities and provide school meals;

(e) to collect school fees and other revenue.

Just as is the case with the State School Board, each Divisional Board was empowered to appoint a School Committee for any primary school in its area. Each of such a Committee was to consist of a Chairman to be appointed by the Divisional Board from the Local Community and not more than nine other representatives of the local community. The Headmaster of the school shall be the Secretary of the Committee.

The East Central State Edict 1970, clearly started a new era in school management in Nigeria. It was the first statutory establishment of a State School System in Nigeria. It provided for a two tier system of School Governance – a State School Board for the management of post-primary institutions and Divisional School Boards for the management of primary schools.

Also each post-primary institution was to have a Board of Governors while each primary school was to have a Committee. The functions of these bodies cover every aspect of school management apart from curriculum and the maintenance of standards which were reserved for the Ministry of Education. Unfortunately the Divisional Boards were never really allowed to or able to function effectively due largely to lack of autonomy in financial resources as well as adequate personnel. They depended on the State Board for all their financial operations and the State Board that was paying the piper actually called the tunes. Thus this was a system of decentralized system on paper but a highly centralized system in practice.

The State School System and the two tier administrative arrangement rapidly spread throughout the States of the Federation with the result that today all the nineteen States have either completely taken-over schools from the Voluntary Agencies and set up a State School System with corresponding Management Boards or are in the process of doing so.

In many of the States no school outside the State School System have been allowed to exist. So it was in most cases a monolithic or monopolistic system.

The new State School Systems and the Management Boards or Commissions have not been without serious problems. Some of the problems include:

1. Invariably strained relationship between the State School Boards as a management organ and the Ministry of Education as a controlling organ – in many instances there have been conflicts of authority and overlapping of jurisdiction as well as lack of clear-cut definition of responsibilities and relationships.
2. The over centralized operation by the State School Boards which actually, in some cases, usurped some of the functions assigned to the Divisional School Boards or Local Education Authorities by law such as the appointment and promotion of primary school teachers; and
3. The lack of effective supervisory organ and the consequent widespread laissez-faire attitude among principals, headmasters and classroom teachers.

Some States have since introduced some variation or modifications of the two tier system of management. In addition to the two bodies some have created a Teachers Service Commission to handle all personnel matters with regard to both primary and secondary school teachers. Such functions include:

(i) to appoint and place teachers in primary and post-primary schools or institutions;

(ii) to promote and confirm the appointment of such teachers;

(iii) to dismiss and exercise disciplinary control over such teachers for misconduct relating to the services of the teachers;

(iv) to make regulations regarding the conditions of service of all staff of the institution.

With the creation of more states in 1975, more State variations emerged. Some of the States changed the State School Boards into State School Services Commission with wider powers than the Boards, incorporating in some cases the functions of the Divisional School Boards and the Teachers Service Commission and having direct administrative link with the Governor of the State rather than the Ministry of Education.

With the introduction of Universal Free Primary Education throughout the country in the year 1976 as well as the introduction of a new Local Government System in the same year, the Federal Government, by a Decree, transferred the responsibility for the provision and management of primary schools to the Local Governments Councils as from the school year 1978/79. The Local Government Areas have been created on the basis of some 150,000 population on the average. But these Councils are ill-equipped and ill-prepared for the new function.

The military regime in a military fashion transferred the responsibility for primary schools to the Local Government Councils but without the necessary personnel and financial resources. Thus after two years of unhappy trial with the Local Government Management System, with the end of the Military Regime and successful return of the country to Civilian rule after thirteen years of the military, some of the States, notably Imo, Anambra and Cross River, have set up education review Commissions, with the view to recommending, in the light of the experiences of the past, new management structures, and functions for the

State School systems. Some are seriously considering a functionally decentralized system with only the leadership, coordinating, controlling and directing functions leading to policy formulations to remain at the State level while the actual management functions are assigned to Local Education Boards which will be parallel to Local Government Areas. Others are even calling for the return of the management of the schools to the Voluntary Agencies. The Educational functions being assigned to the Central Ministries of Education include:

(i) formulation of policies on education;
(ii) educational planning, research and publication;
(iii) maintenance of educational standards;
(iv) development of curricula and syllabuses;
(v) evaluation of education;
(vi) establishment and closure of schools;
(vii) evaluation of certificates, licensing and registration of teachers;
(viii) scholarships and staff development.

The Local Education Boards have been assigned the following functions:

(i) management of primary and post-primary institutions, including supervision of instruction;
(ii) collection of fees and other revenue;
(iii) recruitment, appointment, transfers, promotion and dismissal of staff;
(iv) building and development of new institutions;
(v) procurement of funds and facilities;
(vi) appointment of Boards of Governors and School Committees, etc.

Under the new system the principals of Schools have been assigned more responsibilities and added functions. They have been empowered to suspend teachers and dismiss students for unprofessional misconduct and acts of indiscipline respectively. They are also to perform regular supervisory functions.

Clearly the new State School System requires a new breed of Principals – principals with necessary professional education and training in educational administration and planning; principals with sound leadership ability; principals with broad educational background to understand and appreciate the major trends in contemporary knowledge and civilization; and principals that have the necessary attitude and proper orientation for the success of a genuinely public education system in a plural society.

The School Management of the Nigerian schools in the eighties is therefore going to be largely the function of nominated Local Education Boards with the State Education Departments handling leadership, coordination and controlling functions.

In Nigeria, therefore, within a century and four decades of organized educational activities, the development, the progress, the pattern, and the mode of school management, following closely the political, economic, and social developments within the country, has gone through

(1) decades of Voluntary Agency initiative and domination;

(2) a period of partnership or dual control;

(3) an experimental period of State-take over and monolithic State System with centralized Boards of Management and Commissions; and hopefully in the eighties to (4) a decentralized State School System with Local Education Boards as major organs of management. It is hoped that the emerging system would lead to a more relevant, functional and quality education for the production of much needed personnel for the development of

(i) a trully free and democratic society;
(ii) a united, strong and self-reliant nation;
(iii) a great and dynamic economy;
(iv) a just and egalitarian society; and
(v) a land of bright and full opportunity for all its citizens.

NEW WINE IN OLD BOTTLES: MANAGING CHANGE*

Robin H. Farquhar
Dean, College of Education
University of Saskatchewan

I am pleased with the title I have been given for this presentation because the metaphor of "new wine in old bottles" is particularly appropriate to the management of change. The image of "old bottles" suggests that there are certain things in this world that remain relatively constant; depending on one's perspective, this might refer to the planet itself, to enduring values within a given social system, to a particular school building, or to similar comparatively immutable constructs. The image of "new wine" suggests that within these seemingly constant "shells" (whether they be conceptual or material) change occurs inevitably and continuously; for wine is never stable – it is forever new. But its newness, like change itself, can be "managed" in different ways. One can leave it alone, but it will change nevertheless through the natural processes of aging, ripening, and fermentation. One can intervene by stimulating or manipulating these processes through introducing various agents into the wine in order to change it in ways or at rates that wouldn't be achieved through the natural processes alone. Or one can dramatically and totally alter the contents of the bottle by pouring out the old wine and pouring in a different brew, presumbly because the previous batch has been found to be irretrievably unpalatable or totally undrinkable. So it is with change: it may be managed through laissez-faire evolution, through various degrees of intervention, or through radical revolution. And thus the imagery of the title portrays the immense scope of my topic.

The subject of change may have been studied, written and talked about more than any other topic in education during the past fifteen years. Eight years ago, for example, Havelock published a bibliography of over 4,000 entries on change;[1] and much more has appeared since then. This has two main implications for my presentation. First, it is unlikely that I can say anything that has not already been said. Rather, I shall draw on some of the more interesting and recent work of others, and I'll attempt to present it in a way that is appropriate to this particular conference; thus, I shall try and put "old wine in a new bottle." Secondly, I must be very selective. I shall not review the numerous check lists of stages in the change process, I shall not recount the history of major innovations attempted in recent years, and I shall not promulgate particular changes that seem called for in education today. Rather, I shall focus on the task of managing change, with a practical orientation wherever possible. I shall limit attention largely to what we know based on empirical research, rather than indulging in idle speculation or esoteric theorizing. To the extent that focus is possible, I shall concentrate on change in education with particular reference to the individual school and the work of its head. And throughout, I shall remain conscious of the international and multicultural nature of this audience.

---

*The author gratefully acknowledges the research assistance of Rooald Brice, a graduate student in Educational Administration at the University of Saskatchewan, in preparing this paper and the financial assistance of the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada for helping to make its presentation possible.

Definitionally, many writers have tried to distinguish between the terms "change" and "innovation." While I am happy with the basic distinction that "change" is the more generic and abstract term and "innovation" the more specific and concrete term, there is such difference of opinion on other distinctions that I shall use the terms interchangeably here. Ignoring fortuitous change, I shall concentrate on planned change – attempts to bring about change that are conscious, deliberate, and intended on someone's part. And I like the distinction Bolam makes between the process of curriculum development and the management of innovation: while the two can overlap, much must be done with a newly developed curriculum before it is operationalized as an educational change.[2]

Progressing deductively, I shall deal first at a general level with the major change models that have been developed, with some common barriers to change, and with certain strategies for its implementation. I shall then consider their application within education, concentrating on the individual school and the role of the principal. This will be followed by a review of recent findings that may provide helpful hints to those wishing to effect educational change.

General Considerations

As with scholarship in many areas, the work on change has been "spotty" and characterized by fragmentary trends. Thus, in summarizing his rather comprehensive review of change literature in the mid-1970's, Gaynor observed that:

> "... we know more about diffusion and adoption of innovations among individuals than we know about implementation and institutionalization of innovations in complex organizations ... I think that research on planned change has a history of fragmentation and distortion. Research has been fragmented in a number of directions: between the theoretical and applied sociologists; among the rural sociologists, the human relationists, the political scientists, and, to a new and limited extent, the organizational ecologists; between those focussing on individuals as agents and adopters of change and those focussing on organizations; between those focussing on the internal and those focussing on the external subsystems of organizations; and, finally, between those focussing on institutions as adaptive, stable systems and those primarily concerned with the conflict dynamic of change. The distortion lies in the overemphasis in the literature on research and theory dealing with individuals and human relations and the underemphasis on research and theory dealing with organizations and their complex and changing environments."[3]

This distortion is particularly problematic when one's concern is with the potential of various change models and strategies for international and cross-cultural transferability.

A widely accepted conceptualization of the change process is the one presented by Havelock in 1973, wherein he posited four main models of change.[4] These have been well summarized by Paul. One is referred to as the "problem-solving model":

> The first stage is user diagnosis of problems, perhaps including the help of outside facilitators. Next, the user, in collaboration with the outside facilitator searches for alternative solutions to the problem; a solution is chosen from a list compiled by the user and/or facilitator and is implemented on a trial basis; if it appears promising, it is then incorporated into the user system.[5]

Secondly, there is the "social interaction model":

Distinguishing characteristics of the social interaction view of

> change are the emphasis on (1) communication channels and messages for diffusing innovations, (2) interpersonal influence patterns leading to adoption of innovations, and (3) stimuli for adoption originating outside of the adopting system.—The characteristics of the innovation and innovator are given much attention in the social interaction view.[6]

Then there is the "research-development-diffusion model":

> Basic research is followed by applied research; these findings serve as a framework for the development of a new technique, product, or design for improving educational practice. The development is produced and then disseminated to a wide audience who receive assistance in installing it.[7]

Finally, we have the "linkage model":

> The emphasis of the linkage model is on the establishment of communication networks between sources of innovations and users via an intermediary facilitating role either in the form of a linkage agent or a linkage agency. Aspects of the former three change models ... are incorporated in Havelock's conceptualization of linkage. For example, the needs of users should be sensed by the intermediary agent – an aspect of the problem - solving model; communication patterns should be established – an aspect of the social interaction model; new, knowledge and innovations should be transmitted from their source to potential users – an aspect of the RDD model.[8]

Perhaps because of its capability of incorporating major components of the other three models, the "linkage model" seems to be the most popular conception of the change process at present. Some of its applications to our field are examined in a recent book from the University Council for Educational Administration.[9]

Helpful as these conceptualizations may be, however, their operationalization is quite another matter. The application of any change model to practice in education must take account of several barriers that hinder innovation in our schools. Among the most widely recognized obstacles to change in education are the following:

1. In Carlson's well known terms, schools are "domestic" rather than "wild" organizations in that their existence is virtually guaranteed and they do not have to fight for survival. This can lead to complacency, which is an evident obstacle to change.

2. There are few professional change agents or change advocates in education because specialized roles and positions have not typically been developed for them; nor have specialized programs to train them been designed (with a few notable exceptions).

3. Education still suffers from a relatively weak knowledge base, and there remains serious confusion about the sources of reliable and valid knowledge.

4. Linkages between researchers and practitioners are not very effective, and interpersonal relations between them are typically poor. There is relatively little use of educational research by practitioners because it has not been accumulative to any marked degree, it has not generally been programatically oriented to permit the systematic exploration of major problem areas, and it has not been very responsive to practical problems.

5. The channels and procedures for the dissemination of innovation tend to be weak. There are few clear-cut ways of getting innovations from the laboratory into the classroom, in part because many change efforts do not include specific provisions for training the potential adopter to use the innovation widely or well. Moreover, because teachers tend to work in an isolated fashion, there are few ways in which innovations being tried by a teacher behind the closed door of his or her classroom can be disseminated to other teachers or to the profession-at-large.

6. There are not many incentives for educators to innovate. Economic rewards for change are almost nonexistent and there are some punishments in the form of hostility on the part of community forces and teaching staffs, which are often more active in resisting change than in facilitating it.

7. Many teachers resist change for personality-related reasons. In these days of accountability, too many teachers are authoritarian, defensive, insensitive to pupil needs, preoccupied with information-giving functions, intellectually inert, disinterested in promoting initiative among pupils, and preoccupied with discipline. Moreover, a fear of failure, a defense of vested interests and status,

and an avoidance of inconvenience are typical human characteristics that foster resistance to change. And these individual barriers tend to be magnified when personal resistance is supported by group norms.

8. There are organizational impediments to change in schools or school systems with strong bureaucratic characteristics. Bureaucracies tend to depress creativity, to espouse rational behaviour, to restrain personal growth, to resist external inputs, to reward conformity, to maintain existing structures and functions, to channel communications, and to ignore the informal system.
9. Few administrators have internalized the view that schools are complex open systems in a constant state of exchange with other systems that comprise their environments. Thus, they often overlook the fact that a change in one part of the system will cause or require changes in all other parts and that such changes must be anticipated and included in any effort toward planned change in education.

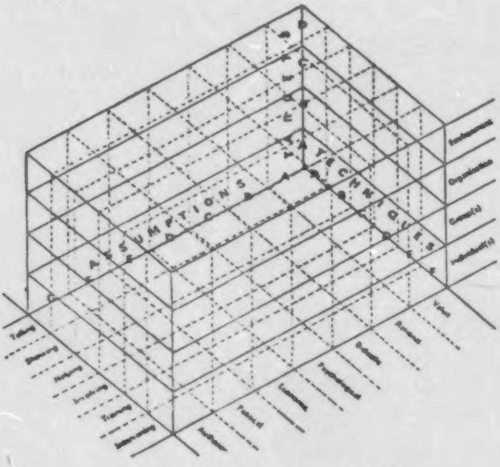
It is encouraging, however, to note that an awareness of these barriers to change and a determination to reduce their impact are evident in much of the applied research now being conducted.

This research has resulted in several organizational arrangements found to be helpful in the generation and implementation of change. One such arrangement is matrix organization, in which a project or program dimension is overlaid on the traditional functional dimension of an organization like a school or school system.[10] This is a structural adaptation of the "temporary systems" approach to change. A second example is the consortium approach. In education this would involve teachers in several schools gaining support from one another in the development and implementation of changes to be introduced to all schools in the group.[11] At the university level in our own field, UCEA is a good example of the consortium approach to the generation of change in preparation programs for educational administrators.

Organization development has become probably the most popular general approach to change over the past decade. OD, which has been well summarized by Weisbord,[12] derives from a recognition that organizations are open, systematic, and interactive in nature. It deals with the relationships between task and process, recognizing that process issues ("the nonrational and sometimes unproductive behaviours associated with strong feelings that are unrecognized or at least unexpressed") can obstruct work, and they result from an imbalance between freedom and constraint in organizations. OD endeavours to redress this imbalance by heightening awareness of the sources of dissatisfaction and anxiety; it may achieve this through feeding back data and by providing alternative visions of what is possible. It tries to clear people's "emotional decks for some rational problem solving." Its core technologies include process consultation, team building, intergroup problem solving, group – and interpersonal – skills training, collaborative problem diagnosis, etc. These are "structure-reducing" technologies, designed to "open up a system by temporarily removing (normative) constraints on thoughts, feelings, and behaviour." OD endeavours to sharpen people's listening, supporting, and conflict-confronting skills, thereby raising their self-esteem and increasing productivity. It is based on a belief that participation leads to "ownership." Its method of operation is usually through the intervention of an outside consultant. Thus, OD does not concentrate on the implementation of particular changes. Rather, it focusses on improving the skills and attitudes of people so that they may better follow open problem solving approaches in pursuing planned, desirable change. It rests on reduced anxiety, enhanced competence, and mutually agreeable problem solving. Organization development is a kind of action research conducted in the workplace itself.

Promising as these approaches are, however, they are not always appropriate in all situations. Perhaps the toughest challenge confronting the administrator is the selection of a change strategy. A few scholars have provided some conceptualizations designed to help in this regard.

At the Third International Intervisitation Program in Educational Administration, held during 1974 in Britain, Thomas presented a three-dimensional change strategy model on the basis of his review of the relevant research.[13] This is depicted in the diagram on the next page. One dimension, derived from the work of Guba, identifies six techniques that the change agent can use with potential adopters: telling, showing, helping, involving, training, and intervening. The second dimension, also derived from Guba, identifies seven different assumptions that the change agent may hold of the potential adopters: the value assumption (wherein the adopter is viewed as a professionally oriented entity that can be obligated to adopt through an appeal to his values), the rational assumption (wherein the adopter is viewed as a rational entity who can be convinced, on the basis of hard data and logical argument, of the utility of the innovation), the didactic assumption (wherein the adopter is viewed as a willing but untrained entity who can be taught what is needed to achieve adoption), the psychological assumption (wherein the adopter is viewed as a psychological entity whose needs for acceptance, involvement, and inclusion can be employed to persuade him to adopt), the economic assumption (wherein the adopter is viewed as an economic entity who can be compensated for agreeing to adopt or deprived of resources or other possible rewards for refusing to adopt), the political assumption (wherein the adopter is viewed as a political entity who can be influenced to adopt), and the authority assumption (wherein the adopter is viewed as an entity in a bureaucratic system who can be compelled to adopt by virtue of his relationships to an authority hierarchy). The third dimension concerns the target system for change efforts and includes the individual, the group, the organization, and the environment.



Three-dimensional Change Strategy Model

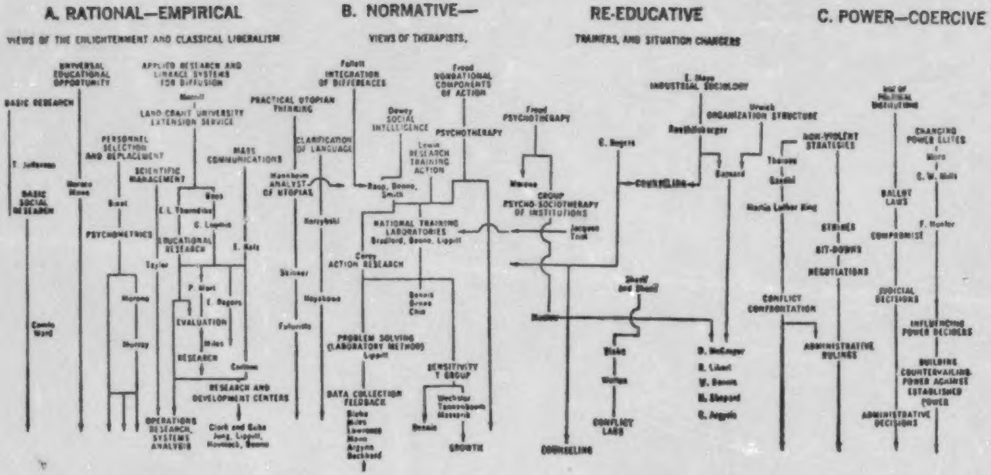
Source: A. Ross Thomas, "Changing and Improving Educational Systems and Institution," Administering Education: International Challenged, *Ed. Meredydd Hughes (London: Athlone,* 1975, *p.* 59.

Obviously, the technique chosen should depend upon one's assumptions about the adopters in the particular environment concerned. The organization development change strategy, for example, would fall primarily within cells DDB and DDC within the model. This conceptualization is helpful not so much in prescribing change strategies that should be employed in particular contexts, as in identifying some of the most significant variables that must be considered by the change agent in selecting an appropriate strategy.

Probably the most popular and comprehensive analysis of strategies for effecting change in human systems is the one generated by Chin and Benne,[14] depicted in the chart on the next page. They identify three major types or groups of change strategies which have evolved historically:

> The first of these, and probably the most frequently employed by men of knowledge in America and Western Europe, are those we call empirical-rational strategies. One fundamental assumption underlying these strategies is that men are rational. Another assumption is that men will follow their rational self-interest once this is revealed to them. A change is proposed by some person or group which knows of a situation that is desirable, effective, and in line with the self-interest of the person, group, organization, or community which will be affected by the change. Because the person (or group) is assumed to be rational and moved by self-interest, it is assumed that he (or they) will adopt the proposed change if it can be rationally justified and if it can be shown by the proposer(s) that he (or they) will gain by the change.

The authors relate this set of strategies back to the Enlightenment and classical liberalism, wherein the main obstacles to change were believed to be ignorance and superstition. Among the strategies that they identify within this category are: (1) basic research and dissemination of knowledge through general education, (2) personnel selection and replacement, (3) systems analysts as staff and consultants, (4) applied research and linkage systems for diffusion of research result, (5) utopian thinking as a strategy of changing, and (6) perceptual and conceptual reorganization through the clarification of language.


A. RATIONAL—EMPIRICAL
VIEWS OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT AND CLASSICAL LIBERALISM
B. NORMATIVE—
VIEWS OF THERAPISTS,
RE-EDUCATIVE
TRAINERS, AND SITUATION CHANGERS
C. POWER—COERCIVE
UNIVERSAL EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY
APPLIED RESEARCH AND LINKAGE SYSTEMS FOR DIFFUSION
BASIC RESEARCH
LAND GRANT UNIVERSITY EXTENSION SERVICE
PRACTICAL UTOPIAN THINKING
PERSONNEL SELECTION AND REPLACEMENT
T. Jefferson
BASIC SOCIAL RESEARCH
Horace Mann
SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT
MASS COMMUNICATIONS
CLARIFICATION OF LANGUAGE
Mannheim ANALYST OF UTOPIAS
E. L. Thorndike
PSYCHOMETRICS
EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH
Taylor
Korzybski
Skinner
Hayakawa
Comte Ward
P. Mort
E. Rogers
EVALUATION
Miles
RESEARCH
Murray
RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT CENTERS
OPERATIONS RESEARCH, SYSTEMS ANALYSIS
Clark and Guba
Jung, Lippitt, Havelock, Benne
Follett INTEGRATION OF DIFFERENCES
Freud NONRATIONAL COMPONENTS OF ACTION
Dewey SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE
PSYCHOTHERAPY
Lewin RESEARCH TRAINING ACTION
Raup, Benne, Smith
Freud PSYCHOTHERAPY
GROUP PSYCHO-SOCIOTHERAPY OF INSTITUTIONS
NATIONAL TRAINING LABORATORIES
Bradford, Benne, Lippitt
Jacques
Corey ACTION RESEARCH
Bennis Bruner Chin
PROBLEM SOLVING (LABORATORY METHOD)
Lippitt
SENSITIVITY T GROUP
DATA COLLECTION FEEDBACK
Argyris
Beckhard
Bennis
GROWTH
COUNSELING
C. Rogers
E. Mayo INDUSTRIAL SOCIOLOGY
Roethlisberger
ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE
Barnard
COUNSELING
NON-VIOLENT STRATEGIES
Gandhi
Martin Luther King
STRIKES
SIT-DOWNS
NEGOTIATIONS
CONFLICT CONFRONTATION
ADMINISTRATIVE RULINGS
Sherif and Sherif
Blake
CONFLICT LABS
D. McGregor
R. Likert
W. Bennis
H. Shepard
C. Argyris
CHANGING POWER ELITES
Marx
C. W. Mills
BALLOT LAWS
COMPROMISE
F. Hunter
JUDICIAL DECISIONS
INFLUENCING POWER DECIDERS
BUILDING COUNTERVAILING POWER AGAINST ESTABLISHED POWER
ADMINISTRATIVE DECISIONS

Strategies of Deliberate Changing

Source: *Robert Chin and Kenneth D. Benne, "General Strategies for Effecting Changes in Human Systems,"* The Planning of Change, *Eds.* Warren G. Bennis et. al. (*Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston,* 1976), *pp.* 45-6.

The second group of strategies they refer to as "normative-re-educative":

> These strategies build upon assumptions about human motivation different from those underlying the first. The rationality and intelligence of men are not denied. Patterns of action and practice are supported by sociocultural norms and by commitments on the part of individuals to these norms. Sociocultural norms are supported by the attitude and value systems of individuals – normative outlooks which undergird their commitments. Change in a pattern of practice or action, according to this view, will occur only as the persons involved are brought to change their normative orientations to old patterns and develop commitments to new ones. And changes in normative orientations involve changes in attitudes, values, skills, and significant relationships, not just changes in knowledge, information, or intellectual rationales for action and practice.

They relate these strategies back to the work of Dewey, Lewin, and Freud. They all reflect an emphasis on the client system and his or its involvement in working out programs of change and improvement for himself or itself, they all assume that more adequate technical information is not sufficient to solve the problem confronting the client, they all assume that the change agent must learn to intervene mutually and collaboratively along with the client into efforts to define and solve his problems, they all assume that nonconscious elements which impede problem solution must be brought into consciousness and publicly examined and reconstructed, and they all draw upon methods and concepts of the behavioural sciences as resources which change agent and client learn to use selectively, relevantly, and appropriately in learning to deal with the confronting problem. Among the strategies identified with this category are those designed to improve the problem-solving capabilities of a system (such as organization development) and those designed to release and foster growth in the persons who make up the system to be changed (such as sensitivity training).

Strategies in the third group are referred to as "power-coercive":

> The influence process involved is basically that of compliance of those with less power to the plans, directions, and leadership of those with greater power. Often the power to be applied is legitimate power or authority. Thus the strategy

> may involve getting the authority of law or administrative policy behind the change to be effected. Some power strategies may appeal less to the use of authoritative power to effect change than to the massing of coercive power, legitimate or not, in support of the change sought.

The ingredients of power emphasized in these strategies are primarily political and economic sanctions, but they may also include moral power (playing upon sentiments of guilt and shame). Among the change strategies included within this category are nonviolence (as practised by Gandhi and Martin Luther King, for example), use of political institutions to achieve change, and changing through the recomposition and manipulation of power elites.

It is important to note that no one of these change strategies, or categories of change strategies, is necessarily better than another. Each may be appropriate at a given time and in a different context. The choice of an appropriate strategy must be related to such factors as the nature of the change involved, the state of development and sophistication of the particular society, the governmental structure of a given country, a nation's political and economic state, cultural characteristics of the social system concerned, priorities among the purposes of education at this time and in this place, etc. Thus, within this audience, the diversity of the settings from which you come requires that there will be much variety among the change strategies judged to be appropriate by different members.

One's choice of the most promising strategy for his setting also relates to the change model employed. In this regard, Paul has made a useful contribution by portraying the interaction between Havelock's four models of change and the three categories of change strategies identified by Chin and Benne,[15] as depicted in the chart on the following page. This produces a helpful guide as to the kind of strategy that seems most likely to result in effective change when a given model of the change process applies – or, conversely, it can suggest the most promising model of the change process for adoption if particular [illegible]gies are to be employed.

Finally, with special reference to the linkage approach, Culbertson concludes the recent UCEA book with a chapter on the relative advantages of internal and external linking agents in educational change. He notes that, whereas up until the mid-70's the internal linker was viewed as the more effective, in the past few years more attention has been given to the need for partner-

MODELS OF CHANGE IN TERMS OF CHANGE STRATEGIES AND ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT PRACTITIONERS

Models of Change	Empirical-Rational Strategy Practitioner viewed as Rational	Normative-Re-Educative Strategy Practitioner viewed as Cooperative	Power-Coercive Strategy Practitioner viewed as Powerless
Problem-Solving Solving	Moderate e.g.: analysis of needs and selection of best solution are rational approaches.	High e.g.: establishing user groups to identify problems an builtd solutions is a cooperative approach	Low e.g.: enforcing laws, rules, and administrative policies are seen as detrimental to the development of self-sufficient problem-solving
Social Interaction Interaction	High e.g.: evaluating compatability and relative advantage of innovations are rational approaches	Moderate e.g.: being open to the merketing of new products and being willing to be persuaded to use them reflects a cooperative approach	Moderate e.g.: being influenced by peers to adopt innovations and being bombarded by advertisements renders the user with little will power to defend against unneeded innovations
Research, Development, Diffusion	High e.g.: implementing R&D products based on their superiority to present conditions is a rational approach.	Low e.g.: being concerned with needs and dispositions of users is viewed as unnecessary and/or inappropriate	High e.g.: adopting of textbooks by legislative enactments, passing laws, and expecting top-down flow of change all assume little power on the part of the user to respond or prevent
Linkage	Moderate e.g.: Instituting collaborative arrangements between R&D community and practitioners is a rational approach	High e.g.: establishing collaborative relationships is based on a cooperative view of both the R&D and practice communities since the collaborative effort should be mutually satisfying	Low e.g.: enacting laws is seen as counter-productive to the establishment of trust and mutually-satisfying and beneficial relations

Source: Douglas A. Paul, "Change Processes at the Elementary, Secondary, and Post-Secondary Levels of Education, "Linking Processes in Educational Improvement: Concept & Applications, *Eds. Nicholas Nash and Jack Culbertson (Columbus: UCEA,* 1977), *p.* 33.

ships between internal and external linking agents (thus responding, in a sense, to one of Gaynor's concerns noted earlier). Writing from the imagined perspective of 1985, Culbertson cites some advantages of joint endeavours that employ the complementary capacities of the two linker types:

> Linkers external to school systems, for example, brought both general commitment and a wide range of information resources to improvement activities; linkers inside school systems brought commitment to specific improvements and an intimate understanding of the change variables in schools and the communities in which the schools were imbedded. While the external linker's power derived more from a specialized knowledge base than from organizational position, the internal linker had the advantage of special or earned position in the organization to be changed. External linkers drew upon a wide range of knowledge-based products and services; the internal linkers had available a wide range of tacit or clinical knowledge related to educational improvement. Given an outside base and the need to perform a facilitative role, the external agent had a more limited capacity for advocating specific problems to be addressed or changes to be initiated. On the other hand, because of a base of established or emergent policy in the organization served and the growing availability of data from local needs assessment efforts, the internal linking agent had a greater capacity for advocacy of this type.[16]

Culbertson goes on to indicate some of the key characteristics and needs that distinguish between internal and external linkers, relating these to the Chin and Benne categories of change strategies and to Havelock's models of the change process, as illustrated in the chart on the next page. These distinctions can be very helpful to senior education officials interested in identifying and developing internal and external linkers who can collaborate in efforts toward educational change. This kind of collaboration provides a strategic dimension with the potential for comprehensiveness and flexibility that may render it applicable to educational change efforts across the wide variety of situational contexts represented by this audience.

Educational Applications

While general considerations such as the above help us to think about the change process, to analyze our own situations for

DIFFERENT APPLICATIONS OF LEARNINGS BY INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL LINKERS

Internal Linkers	External Linkers
1. Because internal linkers worked in more politicized environments, they made greater use of "normative re-educative" strategies of change than did external linkers.	1. External linkers whose chief tools were knowledge-based products and services made greater use of the "empirical-rational" approach to change than did internal linkers.
2. Most internal linkers found the problem-solving model of change more meaningful than other models because it enabled them to address constraints and opportunities in their own situations.	2. External linkers valued linkage and social interaction models of change because they, in contrast to internal linkers, worked in varied settings and had opportunities to see the impact of knowledge diffusion processes in different school systems.
3. Internal linkers needed sources of information and search strategies which could help them locate products or services pertinent to specific improvement objectives.	3. External linkers needed to be familiar with a wide array of knowledge-based products and services so that they could respond to information requests related to varied improvement objectives.
4. Internal linkers used boundary-spanning skills to obtain relevant human or knowledge-based resources from organizations external to school systems.	4. External linkers applied boundary-spanning skills to provide information and services to diverse educational organizations engaged in improvement activities.
5. Since internal linkers brought commitment to specific improvement objectives and an intimate understanding of the change variables in local situations, they needed a general knowledge of resources external to the school system.	5. Since external linkers brought to bear a wide range of information, resources and improvement activities, they needed clinical knowledge about key variables affecting educational improvement in specific systems.
6. Internal linkers had special needs for knowledge and skill in goal setting because of their key legitimation roles.	6. External linkers needed knowledge and skill for use in bringing to bear a wide range of means to achieve goals.
7. Internal linkers needed greater knowledge about the types and attributes of agencies which could provide information on knowledge-based products and services.	7. External linkers needed greater knowledge of the types and attributes of agencies within which educational improvement activities take place.
8. Internal linkers needed greater understanding of information about the products emanating from knowledge uses so that they could apply them in improvement activities.	8. External linkers needed a greater understanding of the processes used to create knowedge-based products and systems.

"For distinctions between the "normative re-educative" and the "empiriacl-rational" see Robert Chin and Kenneth Benne, "General Strategies for Affecting Change Within Human Systems," in *The Planning of Change*. New York Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, 1960, pp. 32-59.

Source: Jack Culbertson, "A Nationwide Training System for Linking Agents in Education," Linking Processes in Educational Improvement: Concept & Applications, *Eds. Nicholas Nash and Jack Culbertson (Columbus: UCEA,* 1977), *p.* 302.

change readiness, and to select appropriate models and strategies for implementation, it is in work on the educational applications of change that we find the most direct and immediate assistance. Some good applied research and development have been done in this field, from which I shall choose two prime examples for consideration. One of these bodies of work is European-based and the other American-based. Both are relatively comprehensive, accumulative, and continuing currently; and both are contributing knowledge that is helping to redress the previously noted underemphasis on organizations and their environments that Gaynor identified.

This is evident in the perspective of the Norwegian-based International Movements Towards Educational Change, led by Dalin:

> The needs of schools differ and their capacity for renewal will vary when faced with the same demand for change, because organizational factors (or the "culture" of the school) have a determining influence. By analyzing institutional values, structures, strategies and their relationship to the environment of the school, we can begin to understand the individual school's capacity to renew itself.[17]

As a setting for change, then, each school is different (although one might expect some macro-differences between schools in one country and those in another). This principle is applied in IMTEC's Institutional Development Program, which views the school as the natural unit for change in education.[18] The IDP approach is closely related to organization development, and is based on a belief that educational changes must be part of "the school culture" and solutions to problems must be shared and "owned" by those who will make the changes. The Institutional Development Program involves IMTEC's training of consultants from within the target organization and provision of the process, instruments, data-processing services, and materials for staff development to be used by the consultants. It begins with a self-assessment, usually performed through administering the Guide to Institutional Learning instrument, which provides profiles on: values, beliefs, and goals of organizational participants; instructional goals; instructional patterns; institutional climate; norms and expectations; leadership; decision-making strategies; influence, power, and control structures; degree of institutional change in recent past; task and time structure; and incentives and rewards. Following data feedback from this instrument, the consultant facilitates discussion by which participants give meaning to the data; they analyze the school's strengths and weaknesses, identify some problems that can be addressed immediately, and establish longer-term goals and strategies which require a concrete plan of action. Such plans of action are developed by an elected committee; they require participation by those within the school, and may involve external agencies as well (perhaps to establish new policies, develop new materials, or provide new training activities). To implement change through this approach usually takes at least two years, and IMTEC charges US $1,200.00 per school (which does not, of course, include the cost of the large amount of staff time the organization itself must invest in the process). My own College of Education is currently about half-way through this Institutional Development Program, and we have so far been quite pleased with the results.

Having tested the IDP in several different sectors of education and in five different countries, Dalin and his colleagues have reached the following conclusions:

1. Schools can learn. We find schools ready to engage themselves in an on-going self-assessment and renewal process.
2. It is critical that IDP is adapted to each school and each culture. The Canadian IDP is different from the Norwegian Project, and each district and school has its own needs that must be taken into account.
3. It is essential that the work takes place without undue pressure. Participation is on a voluntary basis, data belong to the school, and both individuals and schools are protected through a norm of confidentiality.
4. The work takes time. We would suggest that each school should commit itself to a minimum of one year, and IMTEC is ready to assist any one school over a two-year period.
5. The success of the program is dependent on the commitment of the school district. It is only through the development of internal district resources that a school will get the necessary support.
6. Used wrongly, or only in part, the program might be moderately harmful. The training of consultants there-

fore is an essential component of the program, a responsibility of IMTEC.

7. More than two-thirds of the schools involved so far report positive outcomes in areas like: improved climate, better communication, improved problem-solving, a change in leadership-staff relations, improved teacher-student relations. After only two years, some schools can report results of concrete classroom curriculum projects, while most schools are in the process of planning such programs.[19]

Based on this apparent success with change at the school level, IMTEC is now planning to establish a Classroom Development Program and a District Development Program to supplement this Institutional Development Program. It will be interesting to see if the IMTEC principles, which led to the initial view that the school is the natural unit for change, can be applied at the school district and classroom levels.

The chances of this seem good, if the American-based work of Goodlad and his colleagues is any indication. Recognizing the school as the largest organic unit for educational innovation, they established a "League of Cooperating Schools," which has successfully employed networking as a means for extending change beyond the walls of a single school:

> The critical elements were: a process of dialogue, decision making, action, and evaluation on the part of the entire faculty under the leadership of the principal with our help; a reinforcing, reassuring network of schools within which ideas, resources, and practices were developed and exchanged; a hub or center providing but not endorsing ideas, materials, human resources, and the like; and, above all, continuing, nonpunitive, unquestioning support and encouragement; a continuous and self-directed seminar in which the principals discussed their problems and developed necessary leadership understandings and skills; and a variety of pedagogical interchanges through which teachers wanting help secured help from those able to give it.[20]

One conclusion that arises clearly from the work of both Dalin and Goodlad is that the principal can do more than anyone else to encourage and support educational change. It is he or she who is closest to the action where needs for change can be identified, it is he or she who is the immediate supervisor of those who must implement change, and it is he or she who has most direct influence over the organizational health and climate of the educational social system.

Among the many writers touting the principal as the key figure in implementing educational change,[21] Tye is particularly helpful in identifying some of the conditions that the change-oriented principal must create in his school:[22]

1. The principal who wishes others to improve their skills should demonstrate that he, too, is continually attempting to improve his own. He must understand himself, knowing for sure what he values, what he wants to change, what he wants to do to bring about these changes, and how he wants to work with people to bring about these changes. He must read, attend conferences, actively participate in the inservice activities provided by his own system, visit other systems, and actively involve himself in substantive discussions with his fellow workers.
2. Individuals have different goals. If they are to work together effectively, they must determine cooperatively the direction of their efforts. Opportunities for interaction must be provided, broad-based decision making should be encouraged, interpersonal relationships should be of paramount concern, and communication should be facilitated. Centrally held values must be carefully examined so that underlying conflicts can come to the surface, confrontation can take place if necessary, and the group can move toward cohesion and significant action.
3. As a change agent, the principal has a threefold responsibility related to decision making: he must monitor instructional decisions made by teachers, provide a supportive atmosphere in which the decisions can be implemented, and serve as a transactional agent between and among organizational levels and related decisions.
4. Disequilibrium is a necessary condition of change. Some amount of role conflict makes for stimulating relationships and positive change, and one should not attempt to suppress or ignore it. An organizational climate is needed that is open and authentic, where all are able to initiate leadership. In such a climate, role conflict can be minimized and the school program can move forward.

5. People change more easily when such change helps them solve problems which are real to them. Problem solving is central to change in education; it is a difficult, intense, and time-consuming activity, and it should involve the employment of a scientific approach.

6. People improve when they feel they are working in a situation that allows them freedom of trial. Along with this freedom, however, must go responsibility.

7. Psychological static often gets between the sender and receiver of a message. Much of this problem can be alleviated through face-to-face communication. It must be recognized that more communication takes place through informal channels than through formal ones.

8. The use of power in a paternalistic or coercive manner can lead to acquiescence rather than to a desire for real change. Rather, the principal must use influence rather than power – referent influence, expert influence, legitimate influence, and informational influence.

9. In creating a condition for change, the principal as a change agent should assess reasons for resistance on an individual basis and he should be able to deal with such resistance in a variety of ways. These ways may include providing appropriate information, demonstrating alternative procedures, clarifying regulations thought to stand in the way of adopting a new practice, reinforcing those who are anxious by allowing them freedom of trial, and helping people to see why past trials might have failed.

10. Change can be brought about by adding forces in the direction of desired change or by diminishing opposing forces. This can be done by such methods as establishing released-time days, providing materials and equipment and clerical help, giving extra pay for summer work, minimizing preparations, offering freedom from regulations, and even deleting out-dated curricula.

11. It is more reasonable to identify problems carefully and to select and try alternatives in some type of priority order, concentrating on doing well whatever is undertaken at any given time. One cannot change everything at the same time. Planned change is pursued on a broken front, a little at a time.

Central to virtually all of these conditions is a view of the principal as someone who is research literate and has a strong base of behavioural knowledge about change.

Helpful Hints

It has been suggested that the school is the primary unit for educational change, the principal is the primary agent in facilitating it, and there are certain conditions that he should establish in the school if he is to be successful. Since many of you are not principals, but rather are senior administrators hoping for effective change to occur in the schools under your jurisdiction or curious scholars hoping to find change-oriented school settings where you can study the process, you may be wondering how one can fairly easily distinguish between schools in which change is likely to occur and those where it is unlikely. Malcolm Knowles' chart on the next page can be helpful in this regard; it describes some quickly perceived differences between static and innovative organizations with reference to their structure, atmosphere, management philosophy and attitudes, decision making and policy making, and communication patterns.

Another source of helpful hints on educational change is the research that has been conducted in recent years. Having reviewed much of it, Paul provides a useful service by inducing a number of conclusions which he labels as firm or speculative. Among those he considers to be reasonably firm are the following:[23]

> External change agents may bring about greater awareness of innovations and change, but they must overcome resistance.
>
> The perceived legitimacy of change agents is a major influence on the effectiveness of entry into the target system and working with staff in the system.
>
> Teachers work best with and rely most on fellow teachers in information sharing and collaboration for change.
>
> However, hierarchical support may be critical.
>
> Teachers will tend to rely on their own experience for curriculum ideas rather than use curriculum guides prepared by central administrative staff, ideas from principals, or ideas from university courses.
>
> Conversely, facilitating activities promote, encourage, and

73

SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF STATIC *vs.* INNOVATIVE ORGANIZATIONS

By M.S. Knowles

DIMENSIONS	CHARACTERISTICS	
	Static Organizations	Innovative Organizations
Structure	Rigid–much energy given to maintaining permanent departments, committees; reverence for tradition, constitution & by-laws. Hierarchical—adherence to chain of command Roles defined narrowly. Property-bound.	Flexible–much use of temporary task forces; easy shifting of departmental lines; readiness to change constitution, depart from tradition. Multiple linkages based on functional collaboration. Roles defined broadly. Property-mobile.
Atmosphere	Task-centered, impersonal. Cold, formal, reserved. Suspicious.	People-centered, caring. Warm, informal, intimate. Trusting.
Management Philosophy and Attitudes	Function of management is to control personnel through coercive power. Cautious–low risk-taking. Attitude toward errors: to be avoided. Emphasis on personnel selection. Self-sufficiency–closed system regarding sharing resources. Emphasis on conserving resources. Low tolerance for ambiguity.	Function of management is to release the energy of personnel; power is used supportively Experimental–high risk-taking. Attitude toward errots: to be learned from. Emphasis on personnel development. Interdependency–open system regarding sharing resources. High tolerance for amniguity.
Decision-making and Policy-making	High participation at top, low at bottom. Clear distinction between policy-making and policy-execution. Decision-making by legal mechanisms. Decisions treated as final.	Relevant participation by all those affected. Collaborative policy-making and policy-execution. Decision-making by problem-solving. Decisions treated as hypotheses to be tested.
Communication	Restricted flow–constipated. One-way–downward. Feelings repressed or hidden.	Open flow–easy access. Multidirectional–up, down sideways. Feelings expressed.

stimulate teacher use of curriculum ideas and information developed or furnished outside of the teachers' classroom.

Training activities, if properly applied, increase the likelihood of successful implementation and continuation of new programs.

Face-to-face interaction and two-way communication are a most effective mode of conveying information.

An open organizational climate may facilitate the introduction and use of an innovation, but it does not assure introduction and use.

Involvement and participation in the decision-making process by those affected by a change program will be beneficial.

Leadership for change is important, but it is not sufficient to counteract all barriers to change.

Increased vertical and horizontal communication facilitates change.

Linkages between organizations such as schools and colleges should be accompanied by extensive communication and flexible arrangements.

Recognition of school needs and congruence of the change program with the needs facilitates change.

Experience in past change programs and expectations for future programs influence the change process.

Accurate perceptions and expectations which are mutually agreeable between organizational levels (intra-organizational) and between organizations (interorganizational) facilitate change.

Positive attitudes toward change facilitate the change process.

Positive commitment toward change facilitates the change process.

Personality characteristics influence change processes: open-mindedness and experimenting personality types have a positive influence on change.

The availability of time to plan and implement school improvements influences the change process.

The relative advantage, the compatibility, and the complexity of innovations influence their implementation.

> The greater the relative advantage of an innovation, then the greater the likelihood of implementation.
>
> The greater the complexity of an innovation, then the less likely it will be implemented and the less likely it is trivial.
>
> The greater the compatibility of an innovation, then the greater the likelihood of implementation and the greater the likelihood that it is trivial.

Incomplete implementation of innovations is more common than complete implementation.

While these research-based conclusions help us to know something about the change process in education, they do not necessarily help us to do something about it; they are more in the realm of principle than that of practice.

For some more operational hints, directed especially to the school principal, we may turn to the experience-based guidelines of people like Andersen and Foshay:[24]

> Select an instructional leader for each discipline area. Indicate to this individual that the role of the instructional leader is not simply that of the traditional department chairman. Assign this person the task of describing the potential of his area and the problems that must be overcome to reach the potential. Then go over this plan with the leader, share his concerns, express interests in his ideas and help him plan how to use available resources in the best way.
>
> Establish an instructional leadership team of all the instructional leaders and meet with them often. Avoid lengthy discussions of administrative detail and focus attention on current ideas of education, such as accountability, performance contracting, the free school, measurable objectives, effective student participation in curricular planning, task analysis, formative evaluation, mastery learning, and systems approaches to instructional planning and management.

... Advisory committees representing faculty, students, parents, and administrators should be established to study issues and ideas and forward their deliberations to the principal and the instructional leaders.

Schools can and will profit from inservice education if it is appropriately selected. If the school is entrenched in a "no change" tradition, a massive inservice effort may accomplish little. In such instances it will be more appropriate to identify a few popular and energetic teachers who appear dissatisfied with the system and invest money in training them and publicizing their successes. Once a few popular teachers begin to innovate, others will follow and then a massive inservice effort may be appropriate.

Don't ask for experimentation in a global, unspecified fashion ... and then return to your office.

Offer specific support for experiments in being.

Make it clear that experimentation involves taking risks and that the administrator will support teachers who experiment even if mistakes are made.

Create a curriculum council made up of administrators and teachers, meeting on school time, with substitutes provided to relieve teachers so that they may give the council their attention ... and provide it with the time and funds necessary to carry out the experimentation that is called for.

Bend the rules for those who wish to experiment ... Don't ask that experiments necessarily be conducted within the existing framework.

Help the experimenting teachers with their public relations problem.

Above all, tolerate mistakes.

Any of us who have been involved personally in efforts toward educational change could probably add to this list of do's and don'ts. The main point I wish to make is that change is such a complex phenomenon and so difficult to study and report systematically that one who wishes to build a satisfactory knowledge base for its management must do more than read – he or she must also ask around.

Conclusion

This has been quite a rambling attempt to synthesize a rather random selection of insights contributed by various scholars and practitioners who have written about managing change in education. It is evident that no coherent, unifying theory of educational change exists at present. We know a few things about it with some degree of certainty; some of what we know is idiosyncratic and even conflicting; and there are certain important aspects of the field about which we know woefully little, such as the political and anthropological concomitants of educational change – aspects that would be of particular interest to an international and multicultural audience such as this. To talk authoritatively about the management of change as we presently understand it is a fool's mission, one which I have tried to avoid by sampling the diversity of work in the field from a relatively applied perspective rather than by emphasizing its convergence around a particular theoretical orientation. Nevertheless, what we know about managing change is increasing and certain trends in both knowledge and practice are becoming evident; I hope to have communicated some of this to you as well.

Let me conclude with the following common-sense reminders:

1. Change is inevitable; you may steer it but you can't stop it.
2. Change is not necessarily good; change for change's sake is often harmful.
3. Change for the sake of improvement is a constant necessity in education; but it is impossible without a clear conception of direction based on established goals with accountability.

Acceptable goals vary from one individual or group to another, from one educational setting to another, and from one country to another. It is for that reason that I can provide no clear guidance on the management of change that will satisfy all of you. It is this situationally contingent nature of change management that makes it interesting. After all, wouldn't it be unpleasant if everyone had to drink the same kind of wine?

REFERENCES

1. R.G. Havelock, *Bibliography on Knowledge Utilization and Dissemination* (Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, Center for Research on Utilization of Scientfic Knowledge, 1972).
2. R. Bolam, *Planned Educational Change: Theory and Practice* (Bristol: University of Bristol, 1974), p. 20.
3. Alan K. Gaynor, "The Study of Change in Educational Organizations: A Review of the Literature," *Educational Administration: The Developing Decades,* Eds. Luvern L. Cunningham, Walter G. Hack, and Raphael O. Nystrand (Berkeley: McCutchan, 1977), p. 252.
4. R.G. Havelock and D. Lingwood, *R & D Utilization Strategies and Functions An Analytical Comparison of Four Systems* (Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, 1973).
5. Douglas A. Paul, "Change Processes at the Elementary, Secondary, and Post-Secondary Levels of Education," *Linking Processes in Educational Improvement: Concepts and Applications* (Columbus: University Council for Educational Administration, 1977), p. 18.
6. *Ibid.*, p 21.
7. *Ibid.*, p. 24.
8. *Ibid.*, p. 26.
9. Nash and Culbertson, eds., *Linking Processes in Educational Improvement, op. cit.*
10. See, for example: John Gibson, "Matrix Organization: An Emerging Pattern, *The School Administrator*, Vol. 36, No. 9 (October, 1979), pp. 18–19.
11. See, for example: Bill Maynes and Gordon McIntosh, "The Consortium Method of Educational Change," *The Canadian Administrator*, Vol. XIX, No. 1 (October, 1979), pp. 1–6.
12. Marvin R. Weisbord, "Input–Versus Output-Focussed Organizations: Notes on a Contingency Theory of Practice," *The Cutting Edge,* Ed. W. Warner Burke (Toronto: University Associates of Canada, 1978), p. 15.
13. A. Ross Thomas, "Changing and Improving Educational Systems and Institutions," *Administering Education: International Challenge*, Ed. Meredydd Hughes (London: Athlone, 1975), pp. 45–70.
14. Robert Chin and Kenneth D. Benne, "General Strategies for Effecting Changes in Human Systems," *The Planning of Change*, Eds. Warren G. Bennis *et. al.* (Toronto: Holt, Reinehart and Winston, 1976), pp. 23–4.
15. Paul, *op. cit.*, p. 33.
16. Jack Culbertson, "A Nationwide Training System for Linking Agents in Edution," *Linking Processes in Educational Improvement, op. cit.*, p. 278.
17. Per Dalin, *Limits to Educational Change* (London: MacMillan in association with International Movements Towards Educational Change, 1978), p. 51.
18. Per Dalin, "The IMTEC Institutional Development Program" (Oslo: IMTEC, 1979).
19. *Ibid.*, pp. 10–11.

20. John I. Goodlad, "Principals Are the Key to Change," *New Dimensions for Educating Youth*. Eds. John Chaffee, Jr. and James P. Clark (Reston, Va.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1976), p. 78.

21. See, for example: James M. Lipham, "The Administrator's Role in Educational Linkage," *Linking Processes in Educational Improvement, op. cit* pp. 118–48; Ronald Lippitt, "Roles and Processes in Curriculum Development and Change," *Strategy for Curriculum Change*. Ed. Robert R. Leeper (Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1965), pp. 11–28; and Donald C. Orlich, "Federal Educational Policy: The Paradox of Innovation and Centralization," *Educational Researcher*, Vol. 8, No. 7 (July-August, 1979), pp. 4–9.

22. Kenneth A. Tye, "The Principal as a Change Agent, *National Elementary, Principal*, Vol. 49, No. 4 (February, 1970), pp. 45–50 *passim*.

23. Paul, *op. cit.*, pp. 38–53 *passim*.

24. The first four of these suggestions are drawn from Hans O. Andersen, "Facilitating Curricular Change: Some Thoughts for the Principal," *NASSP Bulletin*, Vol. 56, No. 360 (January, 1972), pp. 94–8 *passim.*; the remainder are offered by Arthur W. Foshay, *Curriculum for the 70's: An Agenda for Intervention* (Washington: National Education Association Center for the Study of Instruction, 1970), pp. 72–3 *passim*.

THE PRESENT CANNOT WAIT: COMPETENCIES NEEDED BY THE PRINCIPAL NOW

Dr. Francis Chetcuti,
Director of Education,
Malta Plenary discussion.

I am speaking to you as an ex-headmaster who is sorry to be so. As a director of an educational system in a small country, I am in a good position to realise how much an educational system depends on heads of schools. I can appreciate their strength and perhaps pin-point some of their limitations at a time when educational systems are under heavy stress.

The title of my paper has a sense of urgency about it. Now, more than ever before those in education can say "So much to do and so little to do it with". Many of our countries are losing the population race and are not in a position to provide a full and adequate education to the increasing number of children who need it. Others have been given breathing space by a decrease in the birth rate, but all of us, even those who come from economically advanced countries face tighter and tighter budgets in the face of rising costs. Most of us share the frustrations of unemployed youth and see no early end to this problem. All of us have to face the fact that many of our young people do not see much relevance in the subjects they are offered at school, with the consequent rejection of school values and discipline. There is urgent need for change and development in the curriculum and indeed change in school systems. It must be realised that school systems can no longer go it alone. They need help to gear themselves to prepare young people through a quickly changing present into an insecure future.

If change is to be effective, it has to come from within and it has to come quickly. The best change would be from the grass roots level, from the schools which should be the closest to the youth they serve and to the community of which they are part.

It has been said that most changes in education have been imposed by forces outside the educational system – political decisions, public demand, even student revolt, and there is a great deal of truth in this. Those within the school system tend to look askance at rapid, radical changes because they believe that the best way to change is to develop, to polish, improve and increase what they have. All of us have repeated at some time or other "Evolution not revolution". Unfortunately this attitude has its drawbacks. Time does not wait, and unrelieved pressure seeks solutions elsewhere. Young people are in a hurry, parents whose children lack educational opportunities are in a hurry, politicians are always in a hurry. Sometimes school systems fail to realise that they have been left behind and that they have hardened in the mould they themselves have created. Often schools keep stressing what are known as traditional subjects without appreciating that they have lost much of their relevance. New disciplines are not readily introduced and outmoded ones are not discarded.

Schools must regain their vitality as a factor of change while retaining their roots in society's customs and traditions. This is not easy. Heads of Schools are often drawn into the vortex of the controversy "to centralise or to decentralise". While subcultures and individuality are often encouraged, mass media, mass transportation and mass-production mould people into a common pattern. There is a move, perhaps an unwilling one, from decentralised school systems to more centralised ones. Families uproot themselves more easily and move where jobs are available, children must fit easily into the schools of the areas where they move; the equivalence of school certificates must be readily established. Even when one examines the vaunted independence of schools in the United Kingdom, where the Headmaster may be advised but not instructed, one finds a surprising amount of conformity with the syllabi set by the G.C.E. delegacies.

The fact is that heads of schools have to fight harder to retain the individuality of their school, the success of which is often measured by grades obtained in external examinations. Policies are often established from a distant centre and heads find themselves in a position of having to implement policies which are unrealistic, only vaguely explained, or which countermand previous educational policies because of political change. Unless heads are very careful they will finish as routine administrators and lose all initiative. They must have the competencies required by managers, able to mould central policies and translate them into action to satisfy the present needs of the students and at the same time prepare them to be fully responsible members of a fast changing society. They must link up the world of school with the world of work and make what can be a very difficult and rough transition as smooth as possible. When schools claim that they care for the full individual, they must be careful not to do so solely within the school environment.

What are the competencies required, especially in view of the increasing stresses on educational systems? The traditional attributes of the head master are still very important and many of them fall more under the definition of a vocation than a competency. Heads of School still need an utter dedication to the students under their care, great interest in the community which the school serves and a generosity towards it. One must add teaching skill, a level of academic competency, a knowledge of young people and experience in dealing with them, and an ability to lead, and one has the traditional type of head master on whom our educational systems have relied. It was such heads who gave their students basic learning skills, a wish for further learning and a love of learning for its own sake. They instilled in them middle-class values, which although questioned and even despised in some quarters, are still the mainstay of our culture. They put great stress on character formation and many of them succeeded in moulding the school according to their beliefs and character. They were first and foremost teachers and educators. They were not always good administrators, as present day headmasters have to be. A head of a large secondary school is very often the biggest contractor, directly or indirectly, in the area. He is responsible for a big catering establishment, demands considerable transport service, is a buyer of a big and varied amount of consumable items. He is the employer or the employer's representative of a number of highly skilled and semi-skilled employees; he has to deal with powerful and well organised unions. He has to organise a works time-table for teachers and students based on many variables. He has to face every type and kind of parent. Headmasters should be businessmen with managerial skills required by businessmen. At a time when funds are short, and as a manager of a labour intensive concern, he should be very much aware of cost-benefit exercises, and frequently look at his school as a system of inputs and outputs with the added problems that quality control is extremely difficult to handle, and that the various interested parties, students, policy makers, economic planners, society at large, are not always agreed on aims and methods.

Up to now educational systems have relied on the provision of their managers on an in-breeding process which proved adequate when schools proceeded on an even keel, when looking at the past was more important than trying to foresee and influence the future. Very often the only formal training was teacher-training. A successful teacher moved up the ranks to become head of department, deputy head, head, assistant director and director. Little if any new manegerial blood was infused from outside. The system worked until it came under new and heavier pressures. Schools are among the first to suffer as a result of recurring economic crises and the axiom popularised by economists in the 1950's and so much savoured by educationists "Education is a good investment" seems to have been discarded. New pressures are caused by the breakdown in family cohesion; new ideologies arise and old ones are discarded or lose a great deal of their credibility.

The kind of training and experience so far available to heads of schools may not be sufficient in the future, and one has to look beyond the school environment for administrative experience and knowledge. As yet few countries have devised effective programmes for the training of their school administrators and there is not enough research to indicate how to improve the managerial competency of heads of schools. Part of the programmes could be the attachment of prospective heads of schools with selected sections in business or industry. Some countries are also becoming aware that good school managers may be recruited from outside the educational system.

Many schools are made up of almost independent enclaves with the smallest being the teacher-class unit with teachers teaching their own subject almost independently of what other teachers are doing. The head of the school is supposed to be the catalyst of all the almost independent activities by some magic process based on personality and experience. If essential team teaching is to come into effect there must be teamwork in curriculum development and the planning of courses. Heads of Schools must have the skill to create the climate and the administrative structure for continuous evaluation and change, uniting in this effort experienced teachers perhaps set in their ways and new teachers whose enthusiasm may more than balance their lack of experience.

There is also the very difficult problem of involving in this process the students themselves, because in the final issue it is they who will judge, accept and reject what the school has to offer. There has been lots of talk and plenty of action about student participation but one wonders how effective this action really is. Many times student participation has amounted to students sitting on a committee whose overpowering majority is made up of staff members. Many of them feel that they are observers rather than participants and many students who reject school do not look upon them as their representatives. One effective way in which the majority of students can be made to participate is to provide feed back and evaluation of the curricula offered to them. Students in the Upper forms of Secondary schools measure what the school has to offer by the yardstick "How does this help me achieve what I want to do when I have school". There are the easy ones who want to go on to University. There are others, the majority, who want to go out to work. It is not easy for a headmaster to relinquish what the school has successfully been doing and offer something different to groups of students who want something different even if they do not fully know what it is.

Heads of Schools face the increasing responsibility of preventing gifted students from underselling themselves in their aspirations and of making others realistic in their hopes for work in the face of rising unemployment among school-leavers. They must make themselves more aware of the job opportunities in the area served by the school and find out from employers what skills are required for these jobs. The school programmes can then be adapted to motivate the students and provide them with better chances of employment when they leave school and at the same time encourage them to continue their education after leaving school. Such School programmes must include work experience while at School. I do not mean the usual guided tours through factories, but close collaboration with and actual on the job training in industry so that students can cover part of their specially devised school programmes on the shop floor and at the same time feel their responsibilities as young workers.

The Head of School is the manager who must devise a system to facilitate participation and self analysis by all those concerned in the educational process under his care. The Head must exercise authority and leadership through delegation and supervision of an increasingly automatic system of self analysis and appraisal on the part of teachers and students. Firstly students must assess their own needs, what the school offers in meeting them and how personal response is related to effort and achievement. Secondly the teachers must assess students needs help them in the learning process monitor assessment and record progress. Thirdly faculty, departmental or section heads must also be involved in this continuous process. Fourthly there must also be a social organisation on a year or house basis in which there is not only specific responsibility on the part of staff but training for it on the part of students. Fifthly there must be a careers/guidance unit which shares the social responsibility as well maintaining links with employers, agencies and the world outside in general. Finally the head, has to get together unions, parents, teachers and students to ensure that the school is attuned to and meets the needs of society. These are difficult tasks and skills to attain them are not easily achieved.

It is easy to say that a Headmaster must do this and this and list the competencies he must have. It is extremely difficult to indicate how these skills are to be obtained. It is difficult enough being a good manager. It is even more difficult to be a good educator in a changing world and one feels humble before the many heads of schools who manage to achieve both.

THE PRINCIPAL OF THE FUTURE

Dr. T. R. Bone,
Principal,
Jordanhil College,
Glasgow.

(This is the first draft of my talk, which is being sent off at the end of November in accordance with the agreement with the conference organisers, but it is possible that I may wish to change it if I find that there is serious overlap with points raised at some of the preceding talks earlier in the week).

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen, it is a pleasure and an honour for me to have the opportunity to speak at this conference. It is a pleasure because it is my first visit to Cyprus, and yet in a very short time I have come to feel at home here and among friends, and it is an honour because the quality of the earlier contributions to this conference, both from the platform and from the floor, has been so high that I am genuinely proud to be one of the participants.

The programme says that I am to talk about "The Principal of the Future", but I think I should be a little more precise than that, and should give an indication of just when in the future I am concerned with. After a little consideration I have chosen the rather obvious date of the year 2000. This is sufficiently far away that none of the other speakers, even when looking forward a little, has been talking of a period as far ahead as that, and yet it is not really very far away, since many people in this room today may still be teaching at that time, and possibly there are some here who will be principals in that year. I shall not: if I live that long I shall have safely retired, and I suppose this gives me a little more freedom in making my forecasts. When I speak of the principal, I shall be thinking mainly of the head of a school, but nevertheless much that I say will have some relevance to those who are in charge of colleges or educational institutions of other kinds. To explain my frame of reference a little further, perhaps I should also say that the school I shall have in mind will be somewhere in the developed world, possibly in Europe, in North America, or in Australasia, but nevertheless I would hope that many of the points I would make would have some relevance also for South America, for Africa, or for Asia. Perhaps that suggests that his talk will contain a large number of generalities. I can only hope that that will not be quite the case, but if it is rather general in places that is perhaps inevitable, since only a fool would attempt to be precise about the particulars of a time so far ahead.

The other point I ought to make by way of introduction, before I really begin on the talk, is that my stance will be a basically optimistic one. Of course it is possible that there will be no principals at all in the year 2000, and no schools either, and none of us there to care about it. If I am talking about technological progress, as I shall have to do, then I have to recognise that the technology exists to put an end to human life on this planet, but I am assuming that that will not happen. I have always thought that if one is not an optimist, one should not be engaged in education, since that is an activity which by definition involves the belief that improvement is always possible. I am optimistic in another sense too however. The period of the early 1980s is going to be a very difficult one in education in many parts of the world, with reduced financial provision, less generous physical resources, falling pupil rolls in the developed world, the contraction of education systems, the closing of schools and colleges, a slowing up of promotion prospects for teachers, headaches, ulcers, and coronary arrests for the principals, and a low state of morale all round. But I am assuming that by about 1990 conditions will have improved again, and that by the time we reach 2000 those problems will be regarded simply as a matter of educational history. Indeed, as I am going to explain further in the course of my talk, I regard it as very likely that education will have an enhanced importance in society by that time. So I am optimistic, but that does not mean that I foresee no problems for the principal of the year 2000. He will have problems all right, but they will be different and more interesting than some of those that face us today.

The schools will naturally reflect the kind of societies within which they exist, and so I must begin by making some assumptions about society in the year 2000. Of course there will be differences between nations, but we can hope that those differences will be less than they are today, with what are at present the poorer nations catching up on their richer brethern, with the worst problems of disease and over-population having been solved (which may be a reasonable assumption, since medical science and technology can already provide solutions), and with more of these developing nations being enriched as manufacturing processes pass from the western world to them, as has indeed happened in a number of instances, like Korea, already. The developed nations, which may by then have given up many of their present manufacturing processes, will not necessarily be poorer, since although fewer people may be engaged in productive work there, that does not mean that the level of productivity will necessary decrease. What should decrease is the extent of the differences between the developed and the developing, and if we think of the rate of progress achieved in some of the developing countries in the last twenty years, it is not unreasonable to think that they will have considerably reduced the gap by the year 2000. That is why I hope that some of the things which I shall be saying will be fully applicable to such countries, but when I go on now to my other assumptions about the nature of society, it is the developed countries that I have mainly in mind.

There are five characteristics, then, which one can with some confidence assume for society in the year 2000. These are – (i) that technology will have made even greater impact on people's lives than it has in the last twenty years, (ii) that knowledge will be increasingly important to the economic base of society, (iii) that most people will have more leisure, (iv) that because of the second and third of these, education will have an even more important place than it has today, and will not be confined to children and young persons, but will be provided increasingly throughout people's lives, and (v) that among the functions of education, one very important one will be for it to act as a unifying influence within society. Let me say a little more about each of these in turn, and about their implications for the schools. My conclusions about the work of the principals will follow from that.

First, we must expect that more and more of the routine forms of work will be performed by machines rather than by men. (Johnston, 1972). It is happening already, for we have factories where the assembly line production of motor cars has been taken over by machines, and supermarkets where not only the calculation of our bills but the re-supplying of the stock is performed for us by computers. And once people are relieved of drudgery they do not wish to go back to it: what western housewife would be prepared to give up her vacuum cleaner or her washing machine? What farmer would give up his tractor or his combine harvester? The industrial revolution meant that man's muscular functions

89

could be taken over by machines, and the new electronic revolution means that man's mental function can be performed by machines too, and just as steam power and electricity allowed man to perform physical feats that he was never capable of before, so the microprocessors can perform mental feats with a speed and accuracy that we could never previously achieve. Thus many jobs in offices and factories will inevitably be automated, and while people will be concerned about the loss of employment, they may fairly quickly come, like the housewife in her kitchen, to feel relieved of a burden of drudgery. Some forms of work are little more than slavery, and it is interesting to think that the farmer today has in his shed machines which are the equivalent of more slaves than any great planation owner of the southern states ever had in the early 1850s, just as the modern housewife has in her kitchen and in her cupboards more servants than any great lady ever had in her house in the 18th century.

We are talking about schools however, and the question that arises is that of the extent to which the schools will themselves be affected by machines. Up to this point they have been relatively resistant, with teachers accepting overhead projectors and other devices which have enhanced their teaching, but steadfastly resisting and machines which threatened to take over the teacher's role. I doubt if that can continue till the year 2000, and one of my basic assumptions is that schools will show much more of the influence of technology than they do today, with much more of the routine work of teaching being given over to them. Almost anything that is essentially didactic, where the teacher tells pupils something, or shows them, or explains, can probably be done more effectively on a television set than by a teacher standing in front of the class, and certainly can be repeated over and over by the television set much more efficiently than by the teacher. I would take it for granted that some improved form of television will be a standard piece of equipment on every desk in at least some classes in every school, and the pupils will spend part of their school time learning by this means. The teachers will not be redundant, although they will almost certainly work shorter hours. They will be needed for the more creative and demanding parts of teaching, those which involve the production of learning materials and the direction of the pupil's experiential learning, as well as those parts in which the interaction of minds is an essential feature, or those in which the social aspects of learning are vital parts of the learning itself.

Of course teachers will not adapt too easily to this, any more than workmen in factories, or secretaries in offices will adapt without difficulty to their forms of new technology. But I think that they will have adapted in twenty years' time, for it is almost inconceivable that teaching should go on unchanged when everything else is being altered, and when the technology exists to relieve teachers like others of the most routine parts of their work.

Teachers indeed can afford to have less fear of automation than many other kinds of workers, since it is only part of their work that machines can do, as the evidence of the British Open University shows (Perry, 1976), and since the lack of the profit motive makes it less likely that technology will be applied in any callous or greedy fashion. As the farmers say, "A plough can make a man lord of a garden, or a refugee from a dust bowl", but I would think that there is enough evidence available to show us that technology in education can enrich the teacher's work, and liberate him from his routine chores, without any danger of destruction for the enterprise in which he is engaged.

However I am not here to debate the extent of technological influence in our classrooms; I only assume that it will be much greater by 2000, and as I shall later show, this will affect the Principal's work quite a lot.

The second characteristic of society in the year 2000 that I would assume is that the developed nations will have moved considerably towards a knowledge-based economy. That does not mean that they will not require industry as an important component of their economies, for just as industrial society today needs a strong, although not labour-intensive, agricultural component, so the society of tomorrow will need both agriculture and efficient manufacturing industries, but these will be less labour-intensive, and as Tom Stonier (1979) argues, the dominant form of economic activity will become the manipulation of information and the creation of new knowledge.

The primary sector of the economy (that concerned with the production of foodstuffs and raw materials) has already been transformed by the application of knowledge, with chicken-farming and fish-farming providing good examples of how high productivity can be achieved with relatively little labour, if scientific precepts are followed. That process will go on, and will inevitably spread throughout the world. The secondary sector of the economy (that concerned with the manufacture of goods) will increasingly be automated, and made less labour-intensive. Where it remains labour-intensive much of the work is now being carried out in the third world countries where labour is at present cheaper, but we must assume that in the longer run machines will be invented which will greatly reduce the need for labour in these spheres also. Meanwhile in the developed world the really successful manufacturing industries now are those which employ relatively few people, with chemicals and pharmaceuticals being very good examples. These can generate just as much wealth as the engineering works of a previous century, but involve far fewer people in the process.

The third sector of the economy is that concerned with the application of knowledge in the service of mankind, and here we find that more and more people are employed in the developed world. Here we have the doctors, the lawyers, the accountants, the civil engineers, the architects, the insurance brokers, and (perhaps the largest single group) the teachers. They exist by selling their knowledge to others – mostly indeed to one another – and the trend towards their increase is not one that seems likely to be reversed in the near future.

A yet higher sector of the economy is that concerned with the creation of knowledge, and it is on this that increasingly all the others will depend. Here we have the research workers, the scientists, the creative designers – the people who can see the potential of technology and apply it in new ways. It is on them that we will depend for the creation of new sources of energy, for increased productivity of foodstuffs and raw materials, for improved manufacturing processes, and for the general raising of our standard of living. It is their ideas which the third group will apply and sell to one another, and without them our economies would stagnate and die.

What are the implications of all this for education and for schools? The first is that education will be seen as increasingly important, since it will both play an essential part in the preparation of the research workers and scientists, and will be the means whereby the discoveries that these people make are taught to others. The second implication is that it will be so important that it will not be left to schools or to what we at present know as the education system. That system will be enlarged in many ways, with schools and universities only being a part of it, some of the most important forms of education being carried out in people's homes (where they will be able to do much of the studying which at present is a part of higher education, getting from their television sets all the information which at present they could find in any university library), and much of it also will be carried out in research laboratories and industrial concerns – as indeed is happening already today. The schools however will provide the baseline for it all, and it will be their responsibility not merely to provide the necessary foundation for future learning, but also to encourage the attitudes necessary if people are to be prepared to refresh and up-date their knowledge and skills, and to be ready indeed for the pursuit of learning throughout their lives.

It may seem that in this section I have been concerned solely with the problems of the developed nations, but in fact the case for continuing education can be made just as strongly for the developing countries. Indeed, if one takes the example of communist China, the achievements of Chairman Mao's policy of universal, mass, life-long education, between 1949 and the mid-1970s, were very considerable, and show how much education can do for a country. As Mauger (1979) shows, although China is still relatively poor today, its success in dealing with starvation, homelessness, and drought have been largely the result of the life-long education policy for the masses, and it is not surprising that many other of the developing countries have turned to communist China in planning the revision of their systems.

The third characteristic of society in the year 2000 will surely be that people will spend fewer hours on work than they do today, that more work will be shared, and that people will have more leisure. It may be that our whole attitudes to work will have changed, (Freedman, 1978), and that the concept of unemployment, as it at present exists, will have disappeared. Even on present trends the maximum of a four-day working week for any individual seems inescapable, and the rate of change is accelerating so swiftly that a three-day week may be more likely. Those of us who have a strong sense of the protestant work ethic may find this hard to accept, but those who have that ethic most strongly tend to be older and may not be around by the year 2000 anyway. I think people will adjust, and will be glad to have more time for activities that give them personal satisfaction. After all, if we have accepted what Maslow (1954) and Herzberg (1966) have told us, work is not one of man's basic needs, it is only a means of achieving some of those needs, such as those for the basic necessities of living, for security, for acceptance by others and so on. If these needs can be achieved with a lessened commitment to work, or even with none at all, then it may be possible for men to satisfy some of their higher needs, such as that for what Maslow calls "self actualisation".

Obviously all this has very great implications for the education system. First of all, there will have to be within the basic, schooling we provide much more that prepares people for the creative use of leisure, and while no particular courses in Art, Music, Drama, Physical Education, or Literary Appreciation may be appropriate for all, it will be essential that everyone does take some courses of that kind throughout his or her compulsory period of schooling. These are the subjects which have tended to be relegated to an inferior position in the recent past, but will be seen to be much more important as the time spent in not working increases. If we do not wish to see people spending all of their time sitting in front of television sets, playing mindless games, or watching horseracing or wrestling, and telephoning their bookmakers to gamble on the results, we shall have to regard one of our most important functions in education as being that of helping people to use their leisure to become, more fully and richly, all that they have it in them to be.

The second consequence of this leisure explosion for the schools, and of the sharing of work, is that they will have to do more to promote the values of service to others, to make people more conscious of the inter-dependence of mankind, for it is in activities connected with these values that much of people's satisfaction may come in the future. Many schools already are community schools, which try to be a part of their communities rather than apart from them, but probably all schools will have to go that way, which means not only that their facilities – gymnasia, swimming pools, theatres, and classrooms – should be available to the public on a regular basis, but also that young people while at school should be encouraged to spend some of their time in helping less fortunate or less active neighbours, such as the elderly and the sick. In primitive societies the matter of looking after one another is given much more importance than it has been in our societies in the past hundred years or so, and it may be no bad thing if we see a return to the values of the past in this respect.

Education will of course be continuing long after people leave school, and much of their leisure time may be spent on developing their interests and skills in new ways. This will be the task of the non-formal side of education, which is the side which will probably expand more than any other, and while it is not strictly relevant to my brief today, since the principals of schools will not be responsible for it, they will have to be conscious of the immense amount of educational provision which will be available to people in their homes, probably through more sophisticated forms of broadcasting. The prototypes of these already exist, in Ceefax, Oracle and Prestel in Britain, and under other names in other countries, and they represent the beginnings of a communication revolution which will certainly have taken place long before the year 2000 has come. If teachers recognise just now that the pupils in their classes are learning not only from them, but learning also a great deal from the mass media in their homes, then the process will have gone much further in another twenty years, and that is why I say that teachers will be leaving most of the didactic work to the media. Quite simply, the schools will not be able to compete in that respect, and so teachers will be concentrating on the things that the machines cannot do.

There is a third consequence of the leisure explosion for the schools, and this is that the teachers will have to have much more leisure too. After all, why should they work five days per week if everyone else is working three? And yet if education is going to be as important as I have suggested, it will not be possible for society to have its schools open only on three days. What I would expect to see would be work sharing in these schools, just as in so many other spheres of employment, with there being certain days on which the buildings were used for the education of the young, and other days when the facilities were used more by older members of the community. As a result, there will not be a principal of the school in the normal sense of today; there will be at least two of them, and possibly three.

The fourth assumption that I am making about society in the year 2000 is one that I have already implied several times, since it follows from my second and my third, and is quite simply that education will by then have an even more important place than it has today, being provided increasingly throughout people's lives and being essential for the growth and development of a nation's economy.

One possible implication from this is that teachers will be paid better salaries, relative to other people, than they are today, and I think that that will probably be the case. This does not mean that they will be paid the highest salaries, since those will go to the top scientists, the designers, the consultants who can most successfully sell their knowledge to others, and perhaps to those who are most successful in satisfying peoples need for the enjoyment of leisure. I don't know quite what they will be doing, but

I have no doubt that there will be the equivalent of today's superstar golfers, tennis players, ballet dancers and comedians. Just as they had gladiators in ancient Rome, and we have footballers today, so there will be something else in the next century to entertain the populace. Compared with these, the rewards of teachers will doubtless be modest, but perhaps we shall move a few rungs further up the ladder. I told you at the beginning that I was an optimist.

There is a second possible implication of the increased importance of education which worries me however, and this is that it could easily lead to a further growth in the system of private schools, with the best education being available only to those who can pay the most for it. One can easily see how this could come about, since intelligent and discriminating parents, anxious to give their children the best start they can in life, will want to send them to schools where there are the best teachers of mathematics, physics, and so on, especially if good teachers of those subjects continue to be scarce. I must make it clear however that I would personally regard this as a very unfortunate development, and one which I hope that governments will prevent. Perhaps that may seem unlikely, since it is members of governments, whatever their party affiliation, who are always among the most ready to send their children to private schools, but I think there will be compelling reasons which will lead to a change of heart about that.

This is in fact my fifth and last characteristic of education in the future, that one of its important functions will be to act as a unifying force within society. If ever there was a sure and certain formula for social and political disaster, it is the idea of a rich, full life for an employed elite within a society, with unemployment benefit at subsistance level for the rest (Hubbard, 1979). All governments, in order to try to avoid the very real possibility of revolutions, or at the very least their replacement by other governments which promise more to the people, will therefore have to try to do everything they can to reduce the differences in the pattern of life for their populations. Work sharing will help, as will the reduced importance attached to work, but perhaps the most important single factor which can be used to keep a society united will be its educational provision. As I have said already, much of this will be non-formal, and will be made available through improved forms of broadcasting and through activities in what I have called community schools (although the names may be very different by that time). But I would think that governments would view it as essential that there be at least a common basis of education assured for everyone, so that comprehensive schools will not merely be the norm but become the invariable pattern, and the private schools will have to go.

That is not the only implication I would take from this however, and indeed it is not the most important one, for what I would emphasise is that one of the basic tasks of schools will be to emphasise the common heritage of their pupils, to give people an awareness of the culture pattern into which they have been born, and to try to imbue them with a common sense of values. This is familiar ground for us as educators, and we may be pleased to find that among all the new tasks we have to take on, there are some at least that we know more about than any other group in society. Strange as it may seem in a talk about the future, the teaching of history, literature, music, art and the like will not, I hope, have died, but will be recognised as just as important as it always has been. Other agencies will play their part, but as long as there still are schools for the young then this will be one of their important roles. After all, education is not concerned primarily with the needs of society or with industry, but rather with the needs of men, and in this the acquisition of culture and the sharing of values play a vital part.

All right then, what about the principals? – I know that I have taken a long time to come to them, but I honestly do not think I could have said anything that would have been very helpful without explaining the context in which I see them operating. Now I can do it, and perhaps do it fairly quickly.

In thinking about the structure of this final section of my address, I thought I might group the points that I have to make under three headings – those of the conceptual skills that the principal will need, his human and political skills, and finally his technical and managerial skills. As I did this, I remembered that I had seen it done in that way somewhere before, and looking back, found without any great surprise that this was the very structure which was used four years ago by my friend and our friend Dr. Robin Farquhar, when he was speaking at the regional CCEA Conference in Penang in 1975. I read Robin's paper again (Farquhar, 1978), and found that what he said four years ago had dated very little, in spite of the pace of change, and that what he said about the skills required of principals in the mid 1970's could apply almost equally well to the year 2000, the difference being likely to be more in the specific applications than in the general needs.

First, then, there are the conceptual skills, what Abbot (1974) describes as "the ability to discern meaning in, and to establish relationships among, events and bits of information that at first glance would appear to be discrete and unrelated". The person possessed of these skills can see the organisation as a whole, and can understand how its various parts relate to and affect one another. If you think back on what I was saying about the schools of the year 2000, it is obvious that they will be to a much lesser extent independent units than schools are today, that will be much more links in a chain of continuing education. The principal will therefore have to be much more aware of where his link is placed on that chain, and of how the learning which takes place at school will relate to the other kinds of learning which will take place in the home outside the hours of normal schooling. As I have been trying to explain, the line between the learning that takes place in school and that which takes place outside will be much more blurred than it is now, with a good deal of what we might call formal learning taking place in informal settings. All teachers will have to be aware of this, but it will be very much the responsibility of the principal to ensure that the proper relationships between the two exist. And if the school facilities are used for a variety of purposes within the community, the principal who is responsible for one part of the time will have to be conscious of the needs of those involved at other times, including the second principal who will operate then. It will certainly not be sufficient for us to have a situation such as used to exist when there was an ordinary school during the day and night school in the evenings, with the principal of the first locking away all his equipment in cupboards before the other one came along.

Since the school will be involved in the provision of continuing education itself, it will require to be much more flexible in its offerings and to have greater flexibility in its staffing – both in terms of the expertise and specialisms which staff may possess, and in terms of the methods and approaches which they will employ. The principal, being responsible for all this, will have to analyse situations, diagnose needs, and find ways of using the resources and facilities at his disposal to solve the problems concerned. If we think of all the qualities which writers have required of the innovatory educator in the 1960's and 1970's (e.g.

Lippitt, 1967 or Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1979), then those qualities will be even more needed at the turn of the century.

These conceptual skills will perhaps be most called for with regard to the school's function as a unifying influence in society. The good school principal will have to be one who has a clear perception of develpments within that part of society in which he operates, and can act as a synthesising agent to bring together different sections of it. A simple example, in today's terms, would be for the principal to arrange that some of his pupils spent time in working to help the aged and the infirm members of the community, learning as they did so something about the needs of others and of the value of service, and while the problems may be much more complex in the year 20000, it seems likely that such activities will still be useful. But, for a variety of reasons which you will know yourselves, principals even today do not find it particularly easy to make arrangements of this kind or to sustain them, especially where the able pupils are concerned, because of their academic commitments, and it would be foolish for us to assume that it will be easier in the years to come. It may well be harder still.

Then there is a second set of skills which the principal will need, these being human and political. In terns of human relations he must be quick to understand other people's needs, to support them, to guide them, to inspire their confidence and to resolve the conflicts among them. In political terms, to quote Farquhar, (1978), "he must understand, be able to analyse, and exploit power structures both within his organisation and external to it. He must be skillful at bargaining, at compromising, and at manipulating various kinds of 'trade-offs'. He must know how to build concensus, and when to use confrontation".

To take only one example from the year 2000, the principal then will have an even greater need than now to assist his staff in their own personal development, keeping their skills and knowledge up to date and refreshed in an age when the explosion of knowledge constantly threatens to render them obsolete. Some principals today are very short-sighted about the value of in-service courses for their staff, thinking only of the short-term problems of releasing people from their classes, and ignoring the long-term benefits of improved professional expertise, but that kind of attitude will be totally inappropriate and let us hope impossible in another twenty years' time. If the human beings whom he leads are to retain credibility and self respect as teachers, they will have to be helped constantly to develop their skills, and if what will be most important of all will be their attitudes to their work, then it is the principal, as the leader of the school community, who will be a major factor in the determination of those attitudes.

Through its role in continuing education the school will be more concerned with adults than it is today, and one of the things that the principal will have to remember himself, and make sure that his staff remember, is that the attitudes of adults to learning are rather different from those of children. As Hubbard (1979) has pointed out for example, adults cannot so easily be coerced into doing things they do not wish to do, and if they come to a learning situation looking for one thing, they will not so easily be fobbed off with something else because the school happens to have that on offer and thinks it would be good for them. Furthermore, adults will often have other commitments in their lives which prevent them from attending always at set times, and so provision for them will have to be more flexible. Doubtless the television set and the video-recorder will help, but in this matter the school teachers will have to learn a good deal from the adult education tutors and the voluntary community workers, and it will be the principal, as the foremost representative of the school, who will have to display the new attitudes first.

That takes me on to political skills, for one of the consequences of education being accorded increased importance, as I was forecasting it would, is that inevitably there will be more external pressure on those responsible for it. If the 1970's have seen a growth in the feeling that education is too important to be left to the educationists, and that they must be rendered more accountable to society, then something of that attitude will probably go on, although in different forms from today. The participation by others in the management of the school will almost certainly intensify, and there will be all sorts of new pressures on those responsible for its leadership. Because of this, and because of the way in which the school will be seen as only part of a continuing chain, and will have to relate to a host of other agencies, the powers of principals will certainly not be infinite. Those bargaining skills that Robin Farquhar was talking of will be regularly in demand.

But principals will also need a third kind of skill, which might be called technical and managerial. It is harder to be precise about the nature of the skills required here, since skills are related to tools, and those we might use today will probably look very old

100

fashioned by then, just as the most sophisticated calculating machines or television sets which we now possess may be nothing more than interesting antiques by that time. However the principal of the future will have to have mastered the technical skills of his day, and it will be important that he is able to make the best possible use of the power which the new electronic revolution will give him. For example he should be able to call up on a display unit on his desk all the information about his school and its resources in a split second, and the work of timetabling classes or looking at the assessment profile of an individual pupil should be a matter of ease, but the good principal will be one who can use such information constructively and creatively, and who can exploit the possibilities of electronic power for the benefits of more effective education.

Relating this to his conceptual skills, he will see what things can be left to other agencies in society, and where the priorities of the school must lie, and then will deploy his resources, including the human resources of his staff, to that end. One of his most important skills will be in communications, both with the members of his staff and with the world outside, and in this respect he will have to master all the available media forms.

Inevitably not all principals will measure up to these standards in the year 2000, just as not all principals measure up today to the standards that we would desire of them, but it is certainly clear that their job will be even more demanding than it is just now. On the one hand they will have to be data managers and skilled politicians, while on the other they will have to be warm human beings and men of abiding educational vision. I said at the beginning that I am an optimist, and I think that there will be some people able to do the job, just as there always have been through the changing conditions of the past, but it won't be easy, and it won't be surprising if they become tired even more quickly than their predecessors of the 1980's. I am not sure whether you will find it a dismaying or a reassuring thought, ladies and gentlemen, but I doubt if there is anyone here today, even the youngest, who will be fit to be a principal in the year 2000.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abbot, M.G. (1974) "Principal Performance: A Synthesis", in Culbertson, Henson and Morrison (1974).

Culbertson, J.A., Henson, C. and Morrison, R., Eds., (1974) "Performance Objectives for Principals: Concepts and Instruments", McCutchan, Berkeley.

Farquhar, R.H. (1978) "Recent Developments in the Professional Preparation of Principals", Commonwealth Council for Ecucational Administration, Studies in Educational Administration No. 11, Armidale, New South Wales.

Freedman, D.H. (1978) "The Contemporary Work Ethic in Industrialised Market Economy Countries", Working Employment Programme Research Working Papers, International Labour Organisation (ILO), Geneva.

Herzberg, F. (1966) "Work and the Nature of Man", The World Publishing Company, Cleveland.

Hubbard, G. (1979) "The Need for Diversity of Provision", in Schuller and Megarry (1979).

Johnston, D.F. (1972) "The Future of Work: Three Possible Alternatives", Monthly Labour Review 95 5: 3.

Maslow, A.H. (1954) "Motivation and Personality", Harper and Row, New York.

Mauger, P. (1979) "Education in China: A Lifelong Process" in Schuller and Megarry (1979).

Perry, W. (1976) "The Open University: A Personal Account", Open University Press, Milton Keynes.

Schuller, T, and Megarry, J. (1979), Eds. "Recurrent Education and Lifelong Learning", World Year Book of Education 1979, Kogan Page, London.

Sergiovanni, T.J. and Starratt, R.J. (1979) "Supervision: Human Perspectives", McGraw-Hill, New York.

Stonier, T. (1979) "Changes in Western Society: Educational Implications", in Schuller and Megarry (1979).

MONITORING THE PERFORMANCE OF THE SCHOOLS OF THE FUTURE

Mr. R. Nicholson,
University of West Indies,
Barbados.

1.0 Introduction

1.1. Dictionary Definition of Monitoring :

(*i*) *Shorter Oxford Dictionary*

to admonish as to conduct, to remind or give warning.

(*ii*) *Webster's Dictionary*

to check by means of a receiver (the operation of a telephone, radio, telegraph, television or other transmission) to check by means of a receiver the operation or performance of; to ascertain the quality of transmission, its fidelity to a frequency band, etc.

(*iii*) *Educational Definition of Monitoring*

checking, by means of process evaluation, programme implementation in terms of objectives. Common to all three definitions even the 'archaic' (i) is the checking of actual behaviour or performance against expected behaviour or performance.

Process evaluation may be regarded as the stage in the evaluative process that is prior and related to product evaluation which involves the assessment of programme outcomes in terms of objectives.

1.2 Nature, Scope and Purposes of Educational Evaluation

Bloom et al[1] define educational evaluation as "a method of acquiring and processing the evidence needed in order to make educational decisions".

With reference *to the implementation of curricular* Bloom et al define process evaluation as a system of quality control by means of which it may be determined at each step in the teaching-learning process whether the process is effective or not, and if not, what changes must be made to ensure its effectiveness before it is too late.

Educational evaluation has also been defined as "the process of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives."

Process is defined as a continuing activity comprising many methods and involving a number of steps or operations.

Delineating involves identifying the evaluative information required by listing the decision alternatives to be weighed and the criteria to be applied in weighing them.

Obtaining information refers to the collecting, organising, analysing and availability of information through measurement, data processing and statistical analysis.

Providing information involves the systematic fitting together and reporting of information to the decision.

Useful information satisfies both the scientific criteria of internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity, the practical criteria of relevance, importance, scope, credibility, timeliness and efficiency.

Broomes[2] summarises the "nature, scope and purposes of educational evaluation as being concerned with

(a) collecting a variety of information using a variety of means;
(b) analysing and organising the information collected;
(c) making educational decisions about pupils, teachers and programmes.

He identifies the main classes of persons who make educational decisions as:

Educational politicians
School administrators
Teachers
Pupils
Parents

and the information they need as being usually about:

abilities and skills and attitudes of persons who are about to enter educational institutions;

content and methods and objectives of certain educational programmes;

abilities and skills and attitudes of persons who underwent certain educational programmes.

In considering how evaluation can influence educational decisions and policies Cooley and Lohnes[3] remind us that "evaluation is about and for people. Its raison d'être is to help provide better schooling for their children and their fellow human beings."

T.B. Greenfield[7] et al include, in the phases of educational planning in developing school systems, evaluation of the educational programme through regular reports – process reports, testing and measurement of outcomes, and product reports. This regular feedback serves to activate further cycles of planning and decision-making.

Monitoring the performance of persons involved in the planning, programming and implementation of school programmes – superintendents or education officers, principals, teachers and pupils – is essential in providing feedback concerning the effectiveness of the interactions between people, environment, processes, and the actual, as compared with the intended or expected outcomes from such school programmes. Such feedback from each step in the process should flow into the school or educational system enabling more effective decisions, planning, programming and implementation in the future.

2.0 Schools of the Future

In this section I shall attempt to forecast certain characteristics of schools of the future with particular reference to the trends in the planning and implementation of school programmes in the educational systems of developing territories in the Caribbean. It is not unlikely that some of these trends may also be discernible in the projections for the development of schools and school systems in the more developed countries, which have tended to provide the funds and the models for the educational development programmes of the less developed countries.

2.1 Some Characteristics of Caribbean Schools of the Future

With the achievement of political independence, governments in the Commonwealth Caribbean have assumed responsibility for decision-making concerning the nature, scope, purposes, planning and implementation of their national development programmes, in which an increasing proportion of their national budgets is spent on education.

These increases in expenditure on education have been used to improve both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of educational development programmes.

2.1.2 Quantitative Improvements

In an attempt to provide at least free primary and junior secondary education for all children in the age range 5+ to 14+ more and larger school buildings are being built. This increase in the size of the physical plant has also meant a concomitant increase in the pupil enrolment and in the complement of staff.

2.1.3 Qualitative Improvements

(*i*) *Teacher Training*

Continual attempts are being made to improve the staff-student ratio and to increase the number of primary and secondary teachers being formally trained at territorial teachers' colleges or regional or extra-regional university faculties of education.

These increased full-time teacher training facilities have not kept pace with the increased staff necessary to cope with the increased enrolment. More in-service programmes both of an ad hoc and structured on-going nature are being introduced.

(*ii*) *Equipment and Instructional Facilities*

At the primary level these are still minimal though the need to provide basic educational technology to supplement teacher-made aids has been recognised.

At the secondary level cassettes, tape-recorders, overhead projectors, film projectors are available and are used in teaching.

(*iii*) *School Organisation*

(*a*) *Pupils – Streaming*

With the increased school enrolment, streaming, with all its pupil self-concept disadvantages, or assignment to classes on the basis of achievement in a public or institutional entry test, is practised in both primary and secondary schools. Setting, with its recognition of the range of abilities both in the individual pupil and a group, form, or class of pupils, based on ability displayed by pupils in the particular subject, is attempted in some secondary schools.

(*b*) *Staff-Senior Posts*

With the increased enrolment at the primary level, a less frugal allocation of senior teachers has been made with responsibility for infant departments, in the age-range 5+ to 7+, and the junior primary – – 7+ to 9+ and senior primary – 9+ to 11+, and, in the case of "all-age" primary schools, the age-range 11" to 14+.

At the secondary level where, in some geographical areas, increases in enrolment have almost doubled from 600-750 to 1200-1400 pupils, there has been an even greater allocation of posts of responsibility – these include "year" heads with responsibility for all pupils in each of the three or five years of junior secondary or junior cum senior secondary schools; and departmental heads with responsibility for a subject or group of subjects in the secondary school curriculum. There have also been increases in secretarial, maintenance and other ancillary staff to man services provided by governments such as school snacks or school lunches at the primary level.

(*c*) *Curriculum Development*

Governments are requiring that government and government-aided schools play an active role in providing the nations' children, by the end of the secondary level of education with the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that are consonant with their national development philosophies – political, social and economic – and programmes. They are trying to achieve this objective through the formation and activities of national curriculum development committees charged by Ministries of Education, with producing syllabus outlines and guidelines for their implementation.

(*d*) *Parents' Interest and Influence*

Education, with its public examination and certification of satisfactory completion of the programmes at primary, secondary and tertiary levels, has been recognised by parents as a potent factor in socio-economic mobility and in their children achieving that socio-economic status, to which they themselves might have aspired and either partly or totally succeeded or failed in achieving. Hence parents are expecting that the school will perform this utilitarian role for their children.

(*e*) *Pupil Interest and Influence*

Pupils at the secondary level are expressing both their satisfaction and dissatisfaction about school policies, programmes, teaching and testing, as well as about the personal and professional attitudes of principals and teachers.

(*f*) *Community Interest and Influence*

Potential employers from the government and private sectors in particular, and the public in general tend to attribute any deficiencies in expected knowledge and skills or deviations from the expected values and attitudes to the failure of the schools to live up to their expectations.

3.0 Implications of These Trends for Monitoring the Performance of Schools of the Future

3.1 Who will monitor?

Assuming that these trends are not likely to change significantly within the foreseeable future, that is to the beginning of the twenty-first century or the year 2000, we may then consider who will monitor the performance of schools.

3.1.1 The Politicians

The cabinets of Ministers of Governments, and eventually parliament, if this is considered necessary or politic by the government or opposition parties, where these latter are allowed to exist and function, will receive from Ministers of Education and the electorate information or feedback of the extent to which the products or graduates of schools are demonstrating or are failing to demonstrate the acquisition of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes which they had indicated in their manifestoes or other policy statements.

3.1.2 Personnel in the Education System

(*i*) *Superintendents or Education Officers* in Ministries or Departments of Education will be expected to provide formal feedback in the form of written reports, or informal or oral feedback on the extent of successful performance of schools in implementing the policy directions emanating from Ministries, or their interpretations of changes in policy as enunciated by governments through their Ministries of Education.

(*ii*) *Principals of schools* will be expected to secure information or feed-back from school and other personnel concerning their perceptions of how successfully or unsuccessfully they have performed their roles as leaders, planners, organisers, decision-makers, managers, administrators, curriculum developers and coordinators, instructional leaders, professional supervisors, guides and developers of staff, student guides and improvers of student personnel services, managers of financial and physical resources, chief school-community relations officers.

(*iii*) *Teachers in schools* will provide feedback on curriculum implementation, pupil progress, pupils' reactions to other school activities and the related school personnel.

(iv) Pupils will provide feedback to teachers and principals on how they perceive the success or failure of all school activities and the possible reasons for such success or failure.

3.1.3 Parents and the Community

(*v*) *Parents* will provide information through parent-teacher association meetings and small group or individual meetings with teachers and principals. In cases where they feel strongly about any issue they may resort to public expressions of approval or disapproval through meetings, the communications media or complaints to their parliamentary representatives.

(*iv*) *The Community* through its employers, service and sports clubs or other community organisations will provide feedback concerning the expected knowledge, skills and values which the graduates of schools possess or do not demonstrate in the training for their jobs, their performance in their jobs and their attitude and contribution to other community organisations and activities.

3.2 Why Monitor?

3.2.1 Functions of Monitoring

One of the functions of evaluation is "to provide information that facilitates control and improvement in a system".

It is recommended that information on feedback from each step in process evaluation should flow into the system and permit the system to adjust future behaviour according to past performance.

Monitoring as carried out through the use of process evaluation, checks the extent to which programme implementation is tending to achieve or not to achieve the intended programme outcomes in terms of the objectives as defined.

3.2.2 Objectives of Monitoring

Monitorial activities are designed to:

(i) detect or predict defects in the procedural design or its implementation during the implementation stages;

(ii) provide information for programmed decisions;

(ii) maintain a record of the procedure as it occurs.

(iv) modify procedures or determine new ways of implementing procedures;

(v) improve performance to facilitate self-appraisal.

3.2.3. What will be Monitored?

(i) *Planning* – the statements of goals and objectives to determine whether they are clear and have been communicated to and understood by members of the school board or governing body, school superintendents or education officers, school staff, pupils, parents and the public, and the relationship of these goals and objectives to the needs and expectations of the society.

(ii) *Programming* – whether the procedures, personnel, facilities, budget and time specification are adequate.

(iii) *Implementation* - how effective has been organisation, management, and the 'fit' between the physical, financial and personnel resources that have been used to achieve the programme objectives and produce the intended outcomes.

(iv) *Product or outcomes* – how different have been the actual outcomes from the intended outcomes and the possible reasons for the difference.

3.4 How will Monitoring be Done?

3.4.1 A Functional Approach

It is being suggested that a structured approach to monitoring be devised by the professional and service personnel as well as the client personnel involved or interested in the efficient functioning of schools. This approach will require decisions re means of obtaining feedback re process in relation to objectives and outcomes.

It may be based on those responsibilities, roles, activities and performance of the principal, the teacher, the pupils and the reactions of parents in particular and the community in general to the ways in which these activities are carried out, and the discrepancies between actual outcomes and intended outcomes.

3.4.2 Assumptions

It is assumed that the

(i) goals and objectives of the school have been communicated to and understood by both the professional and service and client personnel of the schools;

(ii) cooperative planning and decision – making have been done by school superintendents, school personnel with inputs from the client personnel – pupils, parents and community;

(iii) that decisions concerning the programme are also the result of cooperative efforts of the principal, staff and pupils of the school;

(iv) that stages in the implementation of the programme have been carefully delineated;

(v) that the expected outcomes are clearly stated.

3.4.3 The Model

(i) *The Principal,* as the leader of the school's programme implementation team of staff and pupils, will determine the functions and activities of himself and his team, and the monitoring strategies to be employed in the evaluation of process or implementation in relation to collectively determined objectives and specified outcomes.

(ii) *Components of the Model*

The Principal will obtain feedback from staff on his performance as:

(a) *Planner* of school programme in response to social change and society's needs;
(b) Decision-maker;
(c) Communicator;
(d) Leader;
(e) Innovator and change agent;
(f) Curriculum developer and coordinator;
(g) Organiser of school programme;
(h) Manager of resources – physical (school plant), financial (school budget) personnel – staff, pupils, parents;
(i) Public Relations Officer – community;
(j) Evaluator.

4.0 Monitoring Strategies

4.1 Institutional Evaluation

After the superintendent or education officer, school principal and staff have collectively decided on objectives, programmes and outcomes, it will be the principal's responsibility to decide on evaluation of the process of programme implementation.

A decision will have to be made as to the evaluative strategies to be adopted.

As process evaluation or monitoring of the implementation stage is related to the extent to which intended objectives and outcomes have been achieved, a decision on monitorial strategies might include consideration of:

4.1.1 The C.I.P.P. Model of: Content Evaluation 4, 11 in which the environment, its unmet needs and problems and unused opportunities are defined, and an initial basis is established for defining objectives operationally and providing information which leads to statements of goals and objectives.

Input Evaluation in which alternative procedures are considered in terms of potential costs and benefits, re staffing, time, budget requirements, potential procedural barriers and ways and means (costs) of overcoming them, and the potential of these procedures to meet the objectives.

Process Evaluation which involves identifying and monitoring on a continuous basis the potential sources of failure e.g., logistics, interpersonal relationships, communication channels, adequacy of resources, staff and time schedule. This monitoring also enables those involved to note and describe what is actually taking place as compared with what was planned, intended or expected to take place.

In this process of institutional evaluation attention is being focussed on:

The People in the school – principal, staff, pupils;

The Processes and Interactions that are noted as being essential for achieving the educational objectives;

The Characteristics of the Environment – in which these processes and interactions take place.

4.1.2 Types of Information to be Collected

The information to be collected will be related to the performance of the principal, staff and pupils and the interaction between them in the process evaluation or implementation stage of the school programme.

4.1.3 Means of Collecting Information

These may include both formal and informal procedures and may range from suggestion boxes, rating scales for assessing performance of principal, teachers and pupils, records of staff meetings and of pupil achievement, both cognitive and affective, interviews, open-ended reaction sheets to be completed by principal, staff and pupils, to interaction analysis and PERT networks.

4.1.4 Means of Analysing and Reporting Information

The analysis and reporting procedure will depend on the type and amount of detailed information collected and whether it will require computerisation of data collected; or the analysis can be done by members of staff within the school.

The means of reporting will also depend on the amount of detailed information collected and whether the intention of the data collection is to provide a basis for immediate procedural change or for projected future action.

4.2 Individual Self-Evaluation

One of the functions of process evaluation is to provide information that facilitates quality control and improvement in a system. Improvement is dependent on the performance of people in a system.

Monitoring a school system could involve both institutional evaluation by the people involved in the system of how well or badly the system is working, as well as self-evaluation by persons in the school system – principal, staff and pupils – of their performance of their roles.

Self-evaluation check-lists may be used by superintendents or education officers, principals, staff and pupils to determine how they perceive themselves as performing.

Measures or instruments used in the institutional evaluation should produce information as to how others perceive each category of these school persons to be performing. The discrepancies may be noted. Since the methods of both institutional and self-evaluation procedures will have been decided by these persons, then there should be a greater probability of the results of these evaluations being used as stimuli to improve individual performance.

4.3 Small-Group or Team Evaluation

Greenfield et al State the *advantages of offective work groups* "with the professional benefits and affective relationships derived through interactions with colleagues". Through these effective work groups mechanisms are provided for the necessary planning, communication channels, organisational control, development of curricula and of professional personnel.

Greenfield et al[7] also suggest the replacement of class-room visitation and observation as a means of appraising individual teaching performance by an evaluation of the programmes groups of teachers have developed and the results of these programmes. Among the advantages cited of group programme development, implementation, measurement and evaluation are:

(i) that the performance of individuals in the programme can be measured against criteria determined by them; and

(ii) that the evaluation itself becomes a group or cooperative activity.

An external evaluator then becomes a partner in assessing whether the programme in which the teacher is involved meets its objectives and whether the group and the teacher himself has made a reasonable contribution to the group's success. This is in accordance with the proposition that "evaluation done *with* or *for* those involved in a programme is psychologically more acceptable than evaluation done to them."

4.4 Central or System Evaluation

This refers to evaluation done by personnel of a central educational authority such as school districts, local authorities, ministries of education, individual states, provinces or countries. There can also be evaluation done by a national evaluation committee in response to a public demand for accountability of the schools for their future to perform as the nation expected.

The massive quantity of information that is to be collected, organised, stored, and retrieved for analysis and incorporation into a report requires the use of sophisticated information storing and processing technology. This periodic large-scale national evaluation of school systems could be regarded as an overall appraisal of how a team of non school-based evaluators see the nation's schools, and can be complementary to the institutional self-evaluations, the group and individual teacher and pupil evaluations that form part of each school's activities.

5.0 Implications for Training of Personnel Involved in Monitoring the Performance of Schools of the Future

5.1 School-Administrators

5.1.1 Training of Superintendents or Education Officers

Superintendents, education officers and supervisors will need to be trained to engage in self-evaluation, assessment of self-evaluation, teacher group or team evaluation and individual teacher evaluation. It is being increasingly felt and suggested that there should be evaluation of administrators at stated intervals for feedback on and improvement in their performance. It has been suggested that such an evaluation might include such areas as goal achievement; personal characteristics as perceived by various individuals and groups; the assigned tasks when the administrator assumed the position; the administrator's own perceptions and personal evaluation of his or her efforts; the approach of the administrator to decision-making; the extent to which the options and procedures of the administrator are limited by traditions, regulations or lack of support from superiors in the hierarchy; the recognition that vastly different views of administration exist.

The training programme for school superintendents, education officers and supervisors could then incorporate the development of some of the competencies which these persons and their significant reference groups see as being essential for the efficient performance of their roles as monitors of school performance.

5.1.2 Training of School Principals

Walker,[14] in addresses delivered at seminars on educational administration and to an educational research institute meeting mentioned among challenges facing educational administration in schools, the challenge of professionalism or "the need to train administrators to coordinate organisations for the achievement of aims", which are not always clearly indicated, and the challenge of science concerned with "the development of theory and concepts as a guide to new knowledge, a guide to action and to explaining and predicting events."

L. E. Watson[13] in discussing "Office and Expertise in the Secondary School" sensed that their occupation needs experience and training, specialised skills and a systematic body of principles". He also stated that more research was needed on the characteristics of the school as an organisation.

T. B. Greenfield et al[7] recognise that "the lack of personnel to organise professional training and development programmes is a problem to be tackled by school systems early".

Culbertson, in a paper presented at the Third Phase of the Fourth International Intervisitation Programme, May 1978, cited inter alia, the need for theory development, research, the development of information systems supportive of training and the development of a theory of practice, and the development of systems for evaluating effective leader and management behaviour in practice settings.

This is but a sample of Australian, British, American and Canadian opinion on the need for relevant task oriented, practice-to-principle or theory of practice training programmes for school principals. If one of the functions of principals is to arrange for monitoring of the performance of their schools, then evaluation techniques and models must form an important component of any training programme.

5.1.3 Training of Senior Teachers and Departmental Heads

These teachers have administrative responsibilities for sections of a school e.g., in the Caribbean context there would be teachers in charge of infant, junior, and senior sections of all-age (5+ to 14+) primary schools, of lower, middle and upper forms of secondary schools, and heads of departments with responsibility for organising the content, methodology and testing of their particular subjects throughout the school. This increasing school complexity and specialisation demands more organisational, planning, decision-making skills from those teachers to whom the school Principal has, perforce, to delegate some of his authority and responsibility.

They will, no doubt, be involved in the institutional self-evaluation, and the team or group evaluation and monitoring procedures within the school. They may even be required to do some in-service training of the teachers who comprise their organisational or instructional teams. They may also be potential candidates for principalship.

5.1.4 The Training of Teachers

It is accepted practice to include in the training programmes for both primary and secondary school teachers curriculum development, implementation and evaluation. This training in evaluation tends to be restricted to the item analysis of norm-referenced tests designed to test the extent to which a group of learners has learnt what the teacher intended that they should learn. The better teachers make use of this cognitive feed-back in their future lesson planning and re-teaching activities.

Insufficient attention is paid to the assessment of the affective incomes of the teaching-learning process, although the use of attitude scales to assess pupils' attitudes towards acquiring knowledge and skills in certain subjects are being used by students at the prmary and seconday teacher-training institutions in their required investigations into teaching-learning problems. It is hoped that they will use similar instruments in evaluating pupils outcomes, in order to achieve that balanced evaluation "that combines what the learner feels about his learning behaviour with objective evaluation from others on his abilities and achievement).

Problems in assessing values, have been noted by researchers. These include the difficulties involved in determining a set of reasonably discrete values and adequately defining them, in characterising individuals or groups by their value judgments; in determining how people make value judgements and how changes in value judgements can be effected.

A suggested but untested hypothesis is that actual values i.e., somewhere between personal ideals and adjustments forced by circumstances. The need for instruments for the measurement of values has been recognised, and further research may produce instruments that school administrators and teachers can use in their evaluation activities.

5.1.5 The Training of Personnel in Evaluation

If schools and school systems are to be monitored through process evaluation and its concomitant content evaluation, input

118

evaluation and product evaluation, then it will become necessary to establish adequately staffed evaluation departments to serve large school systems, or to set up evaluation units in ministries of education, school boards or local education authorities, and to appoint evaluation personnel to larger schools.

Monitoring schools' performance and the evaluation of educational systems will be a continual process in the future as the demands for accountability are likely to increase, and the move towards a science of evaluation will become inevitable.

6.0 The Caribbean Response

With the increase in size of schools and the consequential complexity of school organisation and administration, the need for training of school principals, curriculum developers, teacher trainers and teachers at both the primary and secondary levels has been recognised.

Joint efforts by territorial governments through their ministries of education and teachers' colleges and the faculties of education in the regional universities are being made to meet these needs.

6.1 The Training of Education Administrators

6.1.1 In-Service Training Programmes for School Principals

Over the past thirteen years the author of this paper has been involved in conducting seven territorial and two regional workshops for the training of principals of primary and junior secondary schools. The duration of these territorial workshops range from one to three weeks during vacations to one week per month for six months. The regional workshops have been funded by donor agencies such as the British Overseas Development Agency, the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation, and the Canadian International Development Agency. One fourteen-week training programme was run jointly by the University of the West Indies School of Education and the Faculty of Education of the University of Western Ontario. A pre-condition of these training programmes was that they should deal with those aspects of school organisation and administration selected by school principals as being most pertinent to the tasks they had to perform in schools. Hence the rationale underlying the activities both of the short one-week workshops and of the training programmes of longer duration might be described as a task-analysis approach based on a practice-to-principle or "theory of practice" approach. The components of the workshop activities and of the longer training programmes were determined from the analysis of responses to pre-planning questionnaires and the resultant rank-order of those activities which the principals considered to be most significant in the organisation and administration of schools. These activities according to frequency of mention included: curriculum planning and implementation, time-tabling, planning and implementing the school programme, interpersonal relationships – principal/staff, principal/students, principal/education officers, school/parents/community relationships, evaluation of school programme, on-the-job supervision and guidance of teachers, student guidance and counselling. At the joint U.W.I./U.W.O. training programme, in addition to these activities principals listed remedial instruction, simulation and case studies and basic techniques of investigation or introduction to research methods.

The procedural strategies adopted at the workshops included:

(i) lecturette or short introductory review of educational administration theories that might be used to undergird the practices which participants might decide to recommend for adoption in their small group discussions of the topics selected by them;

(ii) extracts from the relevant literature were prepared as "hand-outs" for each session;

(iii) small group discussions, recorded and reported to large group by discussion leaders, who were rotated daily or at each session according to the decisions of each group. At the daily large group or plenary sessions it was decided what suggestions or recommendations would be included in the final reports of sessions;

(iv) an end-of-workshop evaluation of the activities of the workshop, the strengths and weaknesses of these activities, and suggestions for improving them, was the concluding activity to these task-analysis exercises;

(v) reports on the workshop incorporating the agreed reports on the activities of the workshops, including analyses and summaries of the evaluative comments made by the principals at the end of the workshops, would be prepared by the University of the West Indies consultant at the workshop and forwarded to the Ministries of Education for distribution to principals not later than the beginning of the term following the vacation during which the workshops were held.

Education officers from territorial Ministries of Education attended these workshops. Some of the most frequently mentioned evaluative comments at the one-week territorial workshops have been:

Strengths	*Weaknesses*	*Suggestions for Improvement*
1. Frank discussions and inter-change of ideas, good interpersonal relationships between consultant and principals.	1. Duration of workshop too short.	1. Hold workshops over two-week period once per shool year.
2. Relaxed and informal yet purposeful atmosphere of workshop.	2. Time too short for detailed discussion.	2. Include senior teachers in primary schools.
3. Final recommendations made by principals themselves to suit school situations in the respective territories.	3. Too few lectures.	3. Because of short time each small group should discuss a different topic.
4. Presence and participation of Education officers not inhibiting owing to congenial atmosphere of workshop.		4. Adequate secretarial help needed to type additional handouts and reports of previous day's sessions to be distributed by midmorning break on the following day.

From May 14, 1979 to July 13, 1979, there was held at the University of the West Indies School of Education, Cave Hill, Barbados a Commonwealth Secretariat Regional Training Course for Educational Administrators and Supervisors.

The training course was funded by the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Cooperation. The eighteen participants included: twelve education officers, two primary school and three secondary school principals, one principal of a teachers' college and one assistant secretary in a ministry of education. They came from fifteen territories in the Caribbean, from Guyana in the South to the Cayman Islands in the north. Resource personnel were selected from the University of the West Indies, the Ministry of Education and other Ministries in Barbados. The operational procedures included lectures, handouts, small group discussions and report to plenary sessions, visits and a one-week attachment to educational institutions in Barbados and one other territory in the Eastern Caribbean.

The course content comprised:

A. Educational Administration

I. Educational policies and the national framework.
II. Human relations in educational administration.
III. Communication.
IV. Decision-making and the management of resources.
V. Organisation, Coordination and Evaluation.

B. Educational Supervision

I. (i) The concept, aims and objectives of school supervision.
   (ii) Principles underlying effective supervision.
   (iii) Major functions of the School Supervisor: executive and advisory.
   (iv) Techniques of school supervision.
   (v) Evaluating the effectiveness of school supervision.
II. Some selected functions of the School Supervisor :
   (i) Supervision and Curriculum Development.
   (ii) Supervision and Training.
   (iii) Supervision and the improvement of instruction.
   (iv) Self-evaluation: Staff evaluation: Staff Development.

It will be observed that this was also a task-oriented, task-analysis, practice-to-principle approach with the theoretical inputs that are necessary to form the rationale for the functional activities of the educational administrators attending the workshops, and the evaluative inputs to test the effectiveness of these activities.

A practical outcome of this training course is that one ministry of education is already using its teachers' college principal who attended this course to organise one day release fortnightly in-service workshops for principals of primary schools.

I attended one of these workshops as the University of the West Indies consultant and resource person. It was a profitable and encouraging experience to witness once again headteachers of primary schools, in a personally congenial and professionally cooperative atmosphere, analysing their tasks, simulating situations and coming up, after small and large group discussions, with what they perceived to be practicable experiments for trial in their schools in attempts to solve problems in school organisation and administration identified by themselves.

6.1.2 On-going In-service University Courses for the Training of School Principals

In October 1979, the University of the West Indies School of Education, Cave Hill Campus, Barbados, at the request and with the financial support of the Government of Barbados, which is providing total funding for the programme introduced a training course, successful completion of which would lead to the award of a U.W.I. Certificate in Educational Management and Administration.

The course "is designed to equip participants for effective leadership roles in the management and administration of educational institutions and organisations, and in other supervisory or management positions in the educational system."

It is a three-term thirty-week course with students being released from their jobs one day per week and one week per term in academic year.

The course content comprises:

		Estimated No. of hours
(i)	Caribbean Educational systems and National Development	25
(ii)	Foundations of Education (Philosophical, Sociological and Psychological aspects)	60
(iii)	Organisation and Management of Education	100
(iv)	Language and Education	10
(v)	Evaluation and Assessment	20
(vi)	Introduction to Research Techniques	15
		230

The methodology includes lectures, lecture/discussions, demonstrations, seminars, small group discussions, attachments to educational institutions and relevant non-educational institutions, job practicums under supervision and guidance of course tutors, a group project, development of materials and instruments for use by the participant in his school or elsewhere in the educational system.

There are twenty-four students registered in this initial programme comprising:

3 senior teachers
3 heads of departments
5 deputy heads
1 senior tutor – Community College
12 principals

This is another training programme which provides the theoretical rationale undergirding efficient practice and learning experiences and activities designed to equip participants to perform efficiently in their jobs.

6.1.3 Workshops for Principals and Tutors of Teachers' Colleges

The seven teachers' colleges for the training of primary add junior secondary school teachers are affiliated to the University of the West Indies School of Education, for the granting of U.W.I. School of Education certificates to successful teachers' college graduates. The more important function of the U.W.I. School of Education is the partnership of the members of the Research and Development or "outreach" activities section of the School with their colleagues in teachers' colleges in continually developing, analysing and refining the processes of teacher education in the Eastern Caribbean.

The partners share a common professional interest in the organisation and administration of teachers' colleges, the development and implementation of teachers' college curricula, the formal evaluation of the implementation of these curricula through student performance in the final year teachers' college examinations for which both teachers' college and School of Education personnel share responsibility for setting, marking and moderating.

Workshops for Principals of teachers' colleges have been conducted by the author in which the areas considered were

" task-analysis and classification of the types of abilities and skills that graduating student teachers are expected to have developed or acquired to function in all-age primary or primary and junior secondary schools in the Caribbean"

and

" the objectives, programmes and programme implementation procedures that teachers' colleges should define and devise in order to provide their graduates with these skills."

Cooperative Evaluation of Teachers' Colleges

Discussion of this topic resulted in the following suggestions: That consideration be given to setting up cooperative advisory panels comprising representatives from

(i) the teachers' colleges

(ii) Ministries of Education

(iii) the U.W.I. Institute of Education

(iv) Primary and Secondary School Teachers' Associations

(v) Staff in charge of Pupil Teacher Centres for the puprose of

  (a) defining priorities in the college programmes;

  (b) indicating any deficiencies in the programmes in the light of these priorities;

  (c) pointing up any uneconomical use of time of college staff in low priority projects;

  (d) ensuring collaboration between Ministry of Education and teachers' college personnel in a joint exercise of planning – short and long term – the teachers education roles of colleges within the context of the overall education development programmes of the respective territories.

At another workshop, six years later the topic for consideration was "the competencies required of Teachers' College Graduates in Schools in the Caribbean."

The focus there was that "teacher education programmes should be a well organised and closely integrated programme of clinical experiences".

The Evaluation of Clinical Experiences

It would seem to me that an evaluation of the programme would need to be carried out in terms of:

(i) Individual teacher performance.

(ii) Teacher performance as a member of a group.

(iii) Impact of graduates of Teachers' Colleges on school programme.

(iv) Impact of graduates of Teachers' Colleges on Teachers' College programmes.

In each of the four (4) main areas, we need to develop a check list of questions categorised in such a way as to assist in an analysis and assessment of the clinical experiences.

Thus the structure, form and organisation for the evaluation of curriculum have emerged as the way in which persons, materials and machinery are brought together in order to (a) provide opportunities for teachers and other curriculum workers to acquire evaluation skills, (b) assist teachers, on the job, with their own measurement activities such as devising valid and reliable instruments, and (c) develop a programme of evaluation which leads and motivates teachers to apply current pedagogical and psychological thinking to classroom teaching and to bring the conceptual status of subject matter fields into the experience of children."

Neville Ying,[15] in a paper read at the Heads of Secondary Schools Evaluation Conference held in Jamaica, May 6-8, 1977, on "Continuous Assessments of Students: Implications and Considerations" stressed the following aspects:

Aspects of Students to be Assessed

Both the achievement and personality aspects of each student should be assessed. Student assessment, and in particular, continuous assessment of students should be concerned with both the cognitive and affective domains. That is – continuous assessment should be concerned with booklearning, class-work, projects and practical skills, as well as personal characteristics such as – courtesy, a sense of responsibility, cooperation and perseverance.

Curriculum Structure

In order that continuous assessment can be relevant, effective and efficient, the curriculum should have clearly stated goals and objectives covering both the affective and cognitive domains.

Assessment Instruments and Procedures

In order to do a comprehensive assessment for the great variety of behaviours of students which fall into both the cognitive and affective domains, a variety of instruments should be employed. These include questionnaires, interview schedules, observation schedules, inventories, checklists, classroom tests and standardized tests.

Cumulative Data vs One-Shot Collected Information

The important point being made here is that continuous assessment information must not only be collected and documented, it should also be used and in particular, it should be used cumulatively.

Student-Teacher Relationship

Since any evaluation, process is meaningless without the element of feedback included, both teachers and students should be involved in the continuous assessment process.

Uniqueness characteristics

If the performance, capabilities and progress of students in a particular school are the main concerns of continuous assessment then:

1. It is desirable that assessment and procedures appropriate for the "local situation" be developed and used by the teachers in the schools concerned.
2. Teachers within the school need to be trained to be competent in developing and using results of tests and other evaluative tasks.

Positional Statements

Having examined issues and operational problems related to the continuous assessment of students, let me summarize by making some positional statements about continuous assessment.

1. Continuous assessment of students is a system of

gathering, recording, and analyzing information on an on-going basis for the purpose of making decisions.

2. The decisions which we use continuous information to make can be thought of in terms of two major categories of critical decisions, namely – Route Selection and Certification.

Route selection refers to the choice of the most suitable learning routes for students on the basis of assessments that have been made about their competencies, capabilities, progress and personality characteristics.

Certification

Certification, in its simplest form, can be described as the awarding of certificates to students to indicate that they have a certain set of competencies.

Continuous assessment of students should be an integral aspect of certification.

A fundamental premise in an evaluation system which emphasizes continuous assessment, especially for purposes of certification, is that teachers despite their biases and limitations are in a better position than any external evaluator to provide a comprehensive and reliable picture of students' competencies, abilities, aptitudes, interests, habits and attitudes.

However, a great deal of research is necessary to determine if the continuous assessment information provided by teachers is a more valid indicator of "performance at a later stage", for instance, performance in post-secondary institutions or performance "on the job", than external evaluation based on conventional one-shot end-of-programme examinations."

I have dealt in some detail with the short in-service workshops, longer in-service workshops, and institutional in-service and full-time programmes of training for educational administrators and teachers in the Eastern Caribbean because this is the geographical region of which I have the most intimate knowledge. Jhese training activities have been undergirded by ome of the theoretcail rationale and practices espoused and developed by Caribbean educators, a sample of whose thinking I have given in the summaries of articles written by them for presentation at conferences for teacher educators and administrators.

Both these activities and thinking serve to indicate that, despite our constraints of inadequate material, financial and personnel resources, we are endeavouring to identify the present problems and develop possible solutions to them, to forecast developmental trends in education and to prepare our educators to meet the challenge of schools, teachers' colleges and ministries of education of the foreseeable future.

Summary

In this paper I have attempted to:
define monitoring as checking, by means of process evaluation, programme implementation in terms of objectives;

forecast certain quantitative, qualitative and organisational characteristics of schools in the future with particular reference to the Eastern Caribbean;

indicate the implications of these trends for monitoring the performance of schools of the future by asking and attempting to answer the questions Who will monitor? Why monitor?

What will be monitored? How will monitoring be done?

suggest monitoring strategies;

discuss the implications for the training of educational administrative and teaching personnel who are likely to be involved in monitoring schools in the future;

and finally

provide information on the rationale, process and evaluation of training programmes for educators who might thereby be better equipped to engage in self evaluation of their own performance, and the performance of significant others in the training institutions, and the institutions for which they are training personnel to perform more efficiently – the schools of the future.

REFERENCES

1. Bloom, B.S., Hasting, J.L. Madaus, G.F. — Handbook of formative and summative evaluation of student learning, New York, McGraw Hill, 1976.

2. Broomes, D.R. — "Educational Evaluation: Its Nature, Scope and Purposes". CARSEA (Caribbean Society of Educational Administrators) Journal Vo. 2 No. 3, June 1978, U.W.I. School of Education, Mona, Jamaica, p. 33.

"Research in Education", Report on E.C.S.C.T.E. (Eastern Caribbean Standing Conference on Teacher Education), 1968, U.W.I. School of Education, Cave Hill Campus, Barbados, pp. 74 and 75.

"A Task-Oriented Approach to Teacher Education", E.C.S.C.T.E. Report 1972, pp. 154-176. "Evaluation and Curriculum Development", E.C.S.C.T.E. Report 1971, pp. 139-151. "Structure, Form and Organisation for the Evaluation of Carriculum" Carribbean Journal of Education, Vol. 3 No. 1, 1976, U.W.I. School of Education, Mona, Jamaica, pp. 22 and 49.

3. Cooley, W.R., and Lohnes, P.R. — Evaluation Research in Education, Irvington Publishers Inc. New York, 1976, p. 349.

4. Dressel, P.L. — Handbook of Academic Evaluation, Josey-Bass Publishers Inc, San Francisco, 1976, pp. 9, 14–17, 5, 394–395, 64.

5. Gerberich, J.R. — "Some Criteria for Evaluating Teachers' College Programmes" E.C.S.C.T.E. Report 1970 pp. 99–106.

6. Goodridge, R.V. — "The In-Service Model of Initial Teacher Education: Challenges and Implications",, E.C.S.C.T.E. Report 1974, pp. 94–103.

7. Greenfield, T.B. et al — Developing School Systems, Planning, Organisation and Personnel, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1969, pp. 28, 88, 84–86.

8. Kong, S.L. — Humanistic Psychology and Personalized Teaching, Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada Ltd., 1970. p. 126.

9. Lipham, J.M. Hoeh, J.A. Jnr. The Principalship: Foundations and Functions, Harper and Row Publishers, New York, 1974, pp. 300, 259, 215–240.

10. Nicholson, R.M. "In-Service Workshop for Principals: Description and Appraisal", CARSEA Journal Vol. 3 No. 2, 1978 pp. 2–11.

"Report on Conference for Teachers' College Principals", E.C.S.C.T.E. Report, 1971 pp. 121–138, 64, 62.

"Individual Studies: An Approach to Teacher Education", E.C.S.T.C. Report 1972, pp. 175–189.

11. Phi Delta Kappa National Study Committee on Evaluation Educational Evaluation and Decision-Making, F.E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., Itasca, Illinois, U.S.A. 1971, pp. 40–42, 217, 229.

12. Thomas, L.F. "Competencies Required of Teachers' College Graduates in Schools", E.C.S.C.T.E. Report, 1977, pp. 52–56.

13. Watson, L.E. "Office and Expertise in the Secondary School", in Fowler, G., Morris, V. and Ozga, J.: Decision Making in British Education, Heinemann, London in association with the Open University Press, 1973. p. 405.

14. Walker, W.G. Theory and Practice in Education, University of Queensland Press, 1970, pp. 3–14.

15. Ying, N. Continuous Assessment of Students: Implications and Considerations. CARSEA Journal Vol 2 No. 2, 1977 pp. 63–70.

THE PRINCIPAL OF INDIA

Dr. G. Chaurasia
Executive Director
Indian Council for
Educational Administration

Paper Presented at the Fourth CCEA Regional Conference, CYPRUS 2-8 January, 1980.

The present phase of educational administration is influenced by the "Systems theory" of general administration which focusses on unifying principles that serve to integrate knowledge and understanding from various other fields. It emphasizes analytic approach to understanding and solving problems of administration. It considers every school or institution as a system "an integrated assembly of interacting elements designed to carry out cooperatively a predetermined function". The key ideas of this theory are as follows:

1. All organisations are composed of interacting sub-systems, each of which makes a contribution to the system of which it is a part.
2. Organizations must maintain balance both internally and externally if they are to arrest the process of entropy, i.e. the disorder, disorganisation or decay.
3. Feed back should be utilized as a means of organisational control.
4. Achievement of goals results from appropriate planned system activity directed toward real and feasible goals.

The impact of these key ideas is pervasive and educational administration has been regarded as a social process of great significance. Like other complex organisations, education is also conceptualized in terms of technical, managerial and institutional systems. The *technical* system refers to teaching, teachers and the actual task performance. The *managerial* system includes coordination of task performance and ensuring of needed resources to the technical system. The *institutional* system relates the organisation to its environment. The schools are regarded as open systems the degree of openness varying from school to school. It is thought that "too much openness can create Chaos" within the school whereas a low degree of openness can have a negative effect on the efforts of the school to maintain internal balance and adapt to its environment.

2. Present Status of Educational Administration:

In recent times, with the growing complexity of life and advancement of science and technology, the tasks in education have increased very much both in number and their Social significance, but the provisions for their achievement have not increased proportionately. The educational administrator and the school Principal finds his responsibility multiplied several times by the adition of new challenges and new services he has to render. He is called upon to meet the needs of a fast-changing dynamic society; and he is responsible for improving the process and structure of administration essential to meet these new demands. Fortunately, the growth of new knowledge of educational theory and practice comes to the administrator's rescue. It is here that the role of such conferences and the work of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and all other agencies engaged in educational administration acquires paramount significance.

This raises the question of the status of educational administration as an independent subject of study. There are two distinct schools of thought-one asserts that the educational administrator uses the same processes as are used by other administrators in the fields of business, industry, government etc. The other school of thought is emphatic that the problems of education are peculiar and therefore educational administration is a discipline, a separate study having its own special body of knowledge. The development of educational administration as an independent study has been slow because it is not easy to isolate the function of management from many other educational activities; and the role and function of education is changing rapidly due to technological advances. There are many variables in education-population, traditions, culture, resources and a wide variety of educational institutions and programmes. But in the midst of this diversity there are many similarities which all of us have discovered in the International and Regional Conference of Educational administrators. For example, in each system there must be purposes, personnel, materials, organisation, authority etc. and therefore educational administration has its own field and scope. The educational administrator has much to learn from the Sociologist, Political Scientist and the Business Executive. We have now accumulated a large amount of knowledge about administration and management. We are in a position to define administration, enumerate its problems and processes and describe its materials, tools and techniques. We have facts and information from which we can draw basic principles and values that constitute the subject matter of administration, its science and philosophy. Basically different administrative processes have much in common. For example all types of administration have five functions to perform, viz., purpose, organisation, leadership, authority and group interaction. Similarly there are five types of activities common to all administration viz., planning, communication, coordination, problem-solving and evaluation. The nations of the free world are committed to the democratic way of life and therefore we believe in the following characteristics of educational administration:

1. Education should be universal, free and compulsory.

2. Equality of opportunity and recognition of individual differences must be ensured. 3. Education should be child-centered and help in the all-round development of the child's-physical, intellectual, emotional, moral and spiritual. 4. The teacher should enjoy complete professional freedom. 5. Educational curricula and methods should be flexible. 6. Educational organisation and administration should be decentralised.

3. Modern Management Techniques in Educational Administration

The educational systems all over the world are growing in size and scope as well as in complexity. Education is fast becoming a major national endeavour. The traditional administration, handed down from a colonial past in most of the countries of the Asian region following the age-old routine is dilatory and time-consuming. It is largely oriented towards controlling. A mere quantitative increase in the system will not be able to meet the needs of the new challenges. Time has come when it is urgently necessary to transform the present maintenance administration into developmental administration and to make greater use of the modern management techniques which have proved so successful in business and industry, in defence and military complex and a wide variety of other situations. However, before any of these management techniques are adopted or adapted to educational administration, their relevance, suitability and practicability should be carefully examined the aims of education differ considerably from those of business and industry.

Therefore, the Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi took the initiative and organised the Regional Seminar on the application of modern Management Techniques to Educational Administration in New Delhi from 2–12 November 1970. Forty participants and resource persons representing nine countries from the Asian region took part in the Seminar. Several outstanding management experts presented scholarly papers and acquainted the participants with the theory and concepts of modern management, they also discussed the application of these techniques to educational administration.

Recommendation of the Seminar

Considering the need to modernize the existing systems of educational administration in the Asian Region to ensure greater efficiency and effectiveness.

Noting the role which modern management techniques and aids, which have been used in industry and business as well as in defence and some other sectors of public administration, can play in a process of modernization.

Observing the advisability of examining and evaluating every managemement technique, method or aid in relation to its specific application to special requirements and problems of educational administration and its financial and functional implications as compared with achievable results, and appreciating the possibilities for experimentation, change and innovation which exist at various levels of educational administration and particularly at the institution-level.

The Seminar Recommends

1. Initiate action to set up or reorganize the requisite administrative and organisational machinery, with due regard to multidisciplinary representation, so as to examine the efficiency and the effectiveness of the system of educational administration and design changes and innovations for its improvement.

2. Conduct a continuing and meaningful dialogue leading to collaboration between educational administrators and exponents

of modern management techniques for the purpose of identifying and evolving on the basis of mutual appreciation of their respective approaches. Such principles, methods, techniques and aids as are conducive to better management of education and developing such preliminary requirements as quantifiable objectives, management ratios and work measurements which are essential for the successful application of modern management techniques.

3. Initiate, sponsor, assist and encourage researches, studies and investigations, specially with the participation of Universities, Staff Colleges, Institutes of Management and Public Administration and such other institutions, into the feasibility of applying or adapting modern management techniques and aids in the fields of both educational administration and classroom instruction.

4. Give educational administrators of every level adequate training in management on a regular basis while top administrators are periodically exposed to developments taking place in Management Science.

5. Consider the feasibility of introducing the teaching of modern management techniques applicable to education as a part of the teacher education curriculum in Universities and Colleges of Education.

6. Improve facilities, methods and techniques of collecting, storing, processing, analysing and retrieving data, relevant and usable for better management and indispensable for the application of modern management techniques, and establish educational data banks for such purpose.

7. Provide incentives for the modivation of administrators, management scientists and scholars to suggest, design and implement reforms in the management of education.

8. Produce such books, case studies, monographs, guide manuals, periodicals and audio-visual materials on educational management and modern management techniques as are relevant and applicable to the prevailing economic, political and social conditions of developing countries.

The Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration has now been reorganised and is known as The National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration. It continues the contribution being made at present, through its regular courses, in training educational administrators and planners of the Asian

Region in principles, methods and techniques of modern management.

The N.I.E.P. is helping by:

Organizing special short-term intensive courses in different management techniques for selected educational administrators of the Region.

Organizing regional, sub-regional and national seminars and meetings for the exchange of experiences and views of educational administrators and, in particular, a seminar of research workers in the field of management techniques and a follow-rup seminar of the present seminar after one year, to evaluate the progress made in different countries of the Region.

Sponsoring and assisting in national training courses in educational administration and management in the countries of the Region.

Functioning as a clearing house for new ideas in educational management as well as for information on studies, experiments and experiences of different countries of the Region in regard to the application of modern management techniques to educational administration.

Undertaking such researches and studies as are necessary to define criteria and condition for the use of modern management techniques and identify areas, programmes, schemes and activities in the field of education.

The E.P.A. Bulletin published in April, July, October and January is an excellent Quarterly Bulletin and provides a wealth of information on training, research and extension in the field of educational planning and administration.

4. In-Service Training Course for Secondary School Principals in Madhya Pradesh

The State of Mahya Pradesh is stituated in the heart of India and is the biggest State of Indian Union having a population of 42 million. There are 10 Universities, 200 Colleges, 2000 Secondary Schools and 60,000 Elementary Schools. From Grade 1-11 there are 5 million pupils and 200,000 teachers. There is one Minister for School Education, one Minister for Higher Education, one State Minister for Education, one Education Secretary to Government who is responsible for all educational planning and policies. The Director of Public Instruction is the head of School Education and he is assisted by 25 officers in the Headquarter at Bhopal, 12 Divisional Education Officers located in 12 divisional head-quarters, 54 District Education Officers located in 54 education districts and 1100 Assistant District Inspectors of Schools in the State. There are 45 Elementary Teacher Training Institutes, 10 Govt. Colleges of Education and 4 State level Institutions for pre-service and in-service training of elementary and secondary school teachers.

From 1973 the State Institute of Education at Bhopal has provided an In-Service Training Course for Secondary School Principals, Principals of Basic Training Institutes and District Education Officers. This is a major attempt to modernise educational administration and upgrade the key persons. The training programme include lectures, discussion, seminars, project reports, book reviews and term papers on selected topics. The duration of each course is one month and at least 6 courses are offered every year. In addition to staff members of the State Institute of Education, experts in different areas are invited to speak to the participants on Special Subjects. There is an evaluation at the end of each course and a certificate is awarded to each participant who completes the course success-fully. The curriculum includes the following.

Part I

Area 1 Educational Policies and Reports	*No. of Lectures*
1. Reports related to education by Govt. of India	1
2. Kothari Education Commission 1964-66	3
3. National Education Policy and State Education Policy of M.P.	2
4. Educational Plans of NCERT and other national levels	2
5. Important Educational Plans of M.P. Education Dept. Model Schools, Scholarships and Text book Corporation	3
6. Plans of Board of Secondary Education M.P.	2
Area 2 Qualitative Improvement:	
1. Curriculum and Teaching Methodology	4

2.	Curriculum of Primary, Middle and Higher Secondary classes, Action Research	2
3.	Examination Reforms and Evaluation	5
4.	Ungraded Unit Scheme	2
5.	Work experience, extension services inservice training	3

Area 3 Supervision, Inspection Educational Planning

1.	School Inspections, (Detailed discussions on Inspections of Primary, Middle and Higher Secondary Schools and Basic Training Institutions	5
2.	Educational Administration at the District, Divisional and State Levels	1
3.	Institutional Planning and School complexes	2
4.	Educational Planning at the district level	1
5.	Education of Children in the age group 6-11	1
6.	Education of Children belonging to backward classes and Tribals	1
7.	Decentralization and Democratization of Administration	1
8.	Educational Leadership	1
9.	Principles and methods of supervision and inspection3	2
10.	Organization and importance of various inservice training programmes	1
11.	Attitudinal changes committed to democratic and socialistic state among officers.	1

Area 4 State Level Projects

1.	Campaign for Science Education	2
2.	Schemes of Physical Education	2
3.	Audio Visual Education	2
4.	Educational Guidance	2
5.	Special Problems of Girls Education	2
6.	District, Divisional and State level competitions (Games, Science, Debates, Literary and Cultural Programmes).	1

Area 5 Classification, Control and Appeal:

1.	New methods of office management	2
2.	Departmental Enquiries, Appeal, Rules etc.	2

3.	General Book Circular and Service Rules	2
4.	Grant-in Aid to Non Govt. Schools	2
5.	Case related to Law	2
6.	Purchase and Stores Rules of school equipment	2
7.	Rules and Procedures related to finance and Accounts	4
8.	Proformas related to Reports and statistics to be sent to higher Officers	2
9.	Standing orders of D.P.I.	2
10.	Education Code	
11.	Writing of Confidential Reports-Procedure, Evaluation of Work and Records	1
12.	Delegation of Powers to Subordinate officers	2
13.	Administration of Subordinate officers	1

Part II Conferences Seminars and Projects

1. Girls Education
2. Curriculum and instructional material.
3. Inspection Proformas: Primary, Middle, Higher Secondary and Basic Training Institutions.
4. Evaluation-Developing various proformas.
5. School enrolment-wastage and stagnation.
6. Ungraded unit scheme.
7. Work Experience.
8. District level Educational Planning.
9. Planning for Action Research.
10. Use of Audio-Visual material.

The following table shows the number of persons who have completed this Training Course since 1973.

Year	*D.E.O.*	*Principals H.S. School*	*Principals B.T.I'.s*	*Total*
1973	25	227	25	267
1974	15	222	16	253
1975	1	201	16	218
1976	9	201	1	211
1977	1	108	5	114
1978	x	93	4	97
1979	x	93	x	93
Total	51	1145	67	1253

V. Survey of Secondary School Principals in M.P. conducted under the auspices of Indian Council for Educational Administration

In1979 a Survey was conducted in selected districts of Madhya Pradesh. A Questionnaire was sent to 100 schools and 74 Principals returned the same. The questionnaire includes the following areas:-

1. Educational and professional background of Principal.
2. Teaching and administrative experience of Principal.
2. Prefessional growth activities including in-service programmes.
4. Hobbies and co-curricular interests.
5. Membership of professional organisations.
6. Use of Educational Journals/books etc.
7. Publication of books, articles, book reviews etc.
8. Sources of new ideas in education-innovations and experiments carried out.
9. Sources and agencies whose help sought for professional growth.
10. Parents involvement and participation in school development.
11. Teaching work-load of Principals.
12. Suggestions for improving teaching learning practices of subject of special interest.
13. Other Recommendations for school improvement.

Interpretation of the data collected

Academic Background:-

Majority of the Principals have post-graduate degrees and belong to Humanities faculty. Principals belonging to science faculty are few. Most of them have Bachelor's Degree in Education. Only 25% hold Masters Degree in Education and only 1 Principal possesses Doctoral Degree, in Education. Majority of the respondents have on an average second class marks in all the examinations.

Experience – Teaching and Administration.

Almost all the Principals entered in service as elementary teacher or lecturer and were promoted to the post after serving as teacher for 15 to 20 years. Being a departmental promotion post, no direct recruitment is made on the post of principal. The administrative experience as Principal is spread over from 5 to 15 years of service. Thus they possess sufficient teaching as well as administrative experience. In addition to the administrative work all the Principals take up class teaching for 6 to 12 periods per week.

Participation in Programmes for Professional Growth.

There is provision of one month in-service training course for Principals of Higher Secondary Schools and Elementary Training Institutions. These courses are conducted by State Institute of Education. It is a comprehensive course dealing with effective role of the Principal in academic and administrative areas as described earlier. One fourth of this group of Principals have undergone this training course. All others have attended a number of in-service programmes on teaching methods, administrative responsibilities of Principals and their leadership role, science teaching, qualitative development of school's etc. Principals, therefore, are in touch with the curtent trends and are aware of the challenges in their area of work.

Hobbies and Co-curricular Interests.

Apart from their professional interests, principals devote some time to various hobbies and activities of individual interest which is essential for happy life. These interests and hobbies are sports, games, dramatics, debates, music, dancing, drawing and painting and other cultural and literary activities.

Interest in Professional Organisation.

The professional Organisations have not yet attracted active membership. Only half of the group have a regular membership and position in organizations like A.I.F.E.A. Indian Council for Educational Administration, International Reading Association and local Principal Forum. Professional organization are yet to play an effective role in creating a strong professional awareness.

Interest in Educational Books, Journals etc.

Perhaps the burden of day to day administrative routine and other pressures do not allow many educational administrators and even the Principals the time and energy to maintain habit of reading educational journals and latest books of professional interest. Their contribution in creative writing is also meagre.

Sources of New ideas in Education.

Principals get new ideas in Education from films, journals, books, seminars, conferences, workshops etc. The State Institute of Education, Colleges of Education, StateBoard of Teacher Education, N.C.E.R.T. etc. are the agencies which help in promoting new ideas. There is urgent need for helping Secondary School Principals to keep in touch with innovations and new developments in education. The Principals are aware of this need and would willingly cooperate in new ventures.

Parent Participation in School Activities.

Parent Teacher Associations are working in only 25% of the schools. But this agency is a good forum for mutual communication. Parents suggestions are incorporated in the planning of school improvement programmes. Parent Teacher Association have done commendable work in the alround welfare and progress of the school in many countries. The Govt. of M.P. Education Department has encouraged formation of School Development Committees which enable the functioning of the school in a democratic manner and in obtaining new resources for the school. Parent teacher Associations and School Development Committees have contributed to the school in the following manner:–

1. Maintenance and extension of the school plant.
2. Procuring and repairing the furniture.
3. Improving the social climate and developing discipline.
4. Celebration of school functions and festivals.
5. Awards to meritorious students.
6. Guidance, help and incentives to poor students.

Improvement of teaching learning practices.

In the study of languages, the suggestions of the Principal are regarding developing subject competency by way of developing adequate vocabulary, study habits and drilling, paying personal attention to weaker students, efforts for improving hand-writing and more time for the coverage of the courses. So far as area of Humanities is concerned they have suggested that maximum use of A.V. aids be made and the facilities for training and preparation of teaching aids should be provided.

Other suggestions are as follows:

1. There should be more attention to teaching aids in all subjects.
2. More facilities should be made available for excursions and co-curricular activities.
3. System of testing and evaluation require modification.
4. More stress should be given to practical work and supervised studies.
5. Continuous in-service training of teachers should form a part of regular teacher development programme.

General Suggestions for School Improvement.

1. More accommodation should be provided in the school building.
2. The student-teacher ratio should not exceed from 1:40.
3. The staff relations should be amicable and there should be harmony in the school.
4. Parent Teacher Associations should be strengthened.
5. Subject Teacher Associations should be organised to promote professional growth and encourage preparation and use of teaching aids in all school subjects. Exhibitions of teaching aids should also be organised in schools.
6. The School hours should not be less than 6 hours a day.
7. There should be proper coordination between curricular and other programmes.
8. Diagnostic and remedial measures should be adopted to help weaker as well as talented students.
9. Principal should provide effective leadership and guidance to all teachers.
10. Total school programme should be well-planned in advance and school calender should be prepared.

TECHNOLOGY OF THE FUTURE – RISK OR RICHES?

Dr. W. Mellor,
Monash University,
Melbourne, Australia.

Abstract

Educators often fear the risks they perceive to be associated with computer technology. Workshops and programs to develop computer awareness amongst educators can help to ease the uncertainty attached to technological innovations. One such program has given educators with varying but minimal backgrounds in computer technology "hands-on" experience with several different applications. Participants have been challenged to think about curricular and administrative implications, and have acquired an ease with gaining access to computer by interactive terminals.

As with any supposed innovation, technology is today attracting its share of immoderate, extreme views. On the one hand, technology is feted as the medium whereby man enters the twenty-first century. All of his problems have been solved by electro-mechanical means, leaving him free to pursue his heart's desires. On the other hand, technology is cast as ultimate agent in the dehumanization of man, a scapegoat that can be blamed for all present and future ills.

One such extreme view was recently reported in an Australian newspaper:

> " ... unless we can get on top of the micro-circuit culture and the structural changes in employment for which it will be largely responsible, urban terrorism committed by disgruntled, out-of-work, bewildered people could soon become a fact of life, even in Australia. (Jones, 1979).

The theme of this essay is bound up in four propositions: (i) computer technology (which I take to be largely synonymous with the more general term "technology" in the current debate) has within it the potential for both positive and negative social effects, (ii) it is within the capability of man to control the machine for the ends that he chooses, (iii) rational debate is enhanced by an informed opinion, notably amongst the teaching profession and (iv) informed opinion regarding technological change comes from educational programmes which promote jointly computer awareness and the clarification of human values.

The paper will thus proceed through the following four stages: definitions; some perceived risks associated with computer technology; a programme to promote computer awareness amongst graduate students who have little or no computing background; and some thoughts on the curricular and administrative implications of computer technology for the future of educational institutions.

Definitions

The fact is, of course, that technology as such is nothing new. Technological change is merely a part of social change in general. In 1936, Linton pointed out that change (or innovation) comprises three elements:

(i) a form – that is, its substance and observable physical appearance;

(ii) a function – that is, its contribution to the way of life of the social or organizational system;

(iii) a meaning – that is, people's subjective perceptions of the change or innovation.

Ogburn had already suggested in 1922 a "cultural lag" theory that non-material ideas lagged behind the material in diffusion and adoption. Linton went, on to explain that the form and function of any change are more readily explained because they deal with observable, tangible attributes. "Meaning", though, is something difficult to explain and even more difficult to attain consensus around, because meaning is non-tangible and is attributed by each individual, group, organization or society as determined by varying background experiences and contexts. People may thus be quicker to adopt, or to reject, technological innovations because they see their form and their function, but are less inclined to understand the full implications and meaning of them. Indeed, it is in this subjective, personal area of "meaning", as I shall contend later, that the greatest risks associated with technological change are perceived. It is in this area of "meaning" that programs are required to help individuals and groups achieve greater awareness, clarification and understanding.

In fact, "technology is far more than the machine and refers to standardized means for attaining a predetermined objective or result. This technology converts spontaneous and unreflective behaviour into behaviour that is deliberate and rationalized". (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974:181).

Technology consists not only of physical artifacts such as machines but also of "skills of body and brain, of technical and administrative procedures, and of mental processes, both conscious and unconscious, some of them associated with value judgements which relate man's outer world to his inner one". There are, indeed, many "technologies" or man-machine activities which together produce a desired good or service within a complex organization. (Thompson and Bates, 1957).

For the purposes of this paper, then, (i) technological changes are defined jointly as the physical electro-mechanical processes (such as the computer) for transforming organizational inputs into outputs and the non-mechanical technical systems (such as decision making and communication); (ii) technological changes comprise form, function and meaning – and while some attention will be paid to the first and second of these, the primary intent will be to aid in the process of promoting awareness and the clarification of values associated with "meaning"; moreover, (iii) the focus of this paper will be upon that subset of technological changes which involve computer technology.

Risk and Technological Change

> *The heightened promise of technology in our society faces us with the interrelated tasks of profiting from its opportunities and containing its dangers. (*Mesthene, 1970: 34*).*

Many authors (Grayson, 1976; Widdup, 1979) have warned against possible negative effects of technological change on educational systems. For them, the "meanings" of computer technology include dangers such as:

. depersonalization of the teaching process
. threat to the security of the teaching profession by the imposition of quality control techniques

- the imposition of a cost-dictated uniformity of procedures
- modifications to educational goals and hence values which can threaten political and social ideals
- increased retention rates at school due to unemployment
- need for teacher education and retraining
- fragmented, repetitive jobs and stress-related illnesses
- disproportionate unemployment for women "miseducated" for jobs that no longer exist.

Other dangers derive from the fact that computer technology may be used to perform feasible but unnecessary functions. In education, an "information-based" activity, these dangers are particularly serious because, as Kast and Rosenzweig have pointed out, "computer technology has facilitated the automation of both material *and* information flow" (Kast and Rosezweig, 1974:182).

It is the danger of information overload deriving from technological change that perhaps most besets educators as a whole, whether they be teachers or administrators. One of the greatest developments in computer technology in the last five to ten years has been in the area of word processing, rather than mere "number crunching". So education (and the libraries and resources centres it depends on) are in the forefront of the computer revolution of the 1980's. (Mellor, 1977).

Yet computer technologists commonly operate on five assumptions which result in information overload and "misinformation".

1. the critical deficiency under which most managers operate is the lack of relevant information
2. the manager needs the information he wants
3. if a manager has the information he needs his decision making will improve
4. better communication between managers improves organizational performance
5. a manager does not have to understand how his information system works, only how to use it (Ackoff, 1967).

Perhaps the most common charge against computer technology is that it "dehumanizes" – that man in fact becomes servant rather than master of the machine. There may be a danger that computer technology will lead to the imposition of the values of one section of society on the remainder. In this sense, a "technocratic elite" may become established.

So, too, it is plausible that we fear computer technology because it inevitably challenges our existing value systems. It may even be, as one author has it, (Ellul, 1964) that technology can be controlled by man only at the expense of some "fundamental changes in values and goals". Educators may even be particularly at risk in this regard in that education will be the recipient rather than the developer of computer technology.

And no doubt educators often perceive themselves to be at risk in regard to technological change. "Risk" has been defined (Giacquinta, 1976; Elizur and Guttman, 1976) as "the probability or possibility of cost, loss or damage resulting from an action... Risk connotes uncertainty about the fruits of such actions." Risk therefore is linked to uncertainty, and uncertainty is closely tied to lack of relevant information and to lack of awareness. Moreover, Giacquinta has demonstrated that increased perceived risk is directly related to decreasing receptivity to change and new ideas.

Everson and Tobias reported a study in 1978 exploring the relationship between "fear of automation" and teachers' attitudes toward instructional media. They listed ten terms for instructional devices categorized as:

(a) traditional: textbook; flashcard; workbook; film strip; exercise book

(b) technological: teaching machine; automated instruction; computer based instruction; computer managed instruction; educational technology.

Subjects for the study were 112 graduate students in education who were teachers or were applying for teaching posts. The terms with technological "meanings" elicited significantly more negative responses than the traditional terms with "traditional" meanings.

In addition responses were analyzed according to each of three respondent groups:

(a) one group received instructions indicating that the devices listed were intended as *replacement* for teachers

(b) a second group received instructions that the devices listed were intended to be used as an adjunct to the teacher's role

149

(c) a third group were given simply *neutral* instructions.

Somewhat predictably, those from the "replacement" group responded more negatively to both traditional and technological terms than subjects from either "adjunct" or "neutral" groups.

The Everson and Tobias study concluded that the selection of terms to describe new instructional equipment should be approached carefully. Moreover, workshops and related activities should be run directed towards teacher awareness of technological change and instructional devices (Moss, 1979).

Related inferences may be drawn regarding many of the dangers listed previously. Some of the dangers or risks are perceived rather than actual, so that activities designed to heighten awareness will reduce the uncertainty that leads to risk. Some dangers are associated with the imposition of one set of values upon those of others – yet the machine can perform only those functions it is programmed to perform and can be programmed by educators to suit their needs and those of their students; and the suppliers of computer technology, amongst whom there is great competition, can readily be brought to face the value orientations and needs of informed customers. Other dangers arise merely from the perceptions of the ignorant – educators must exetr their values and their peculiar expertise to exploit the technology without being exploited (Blackwell, n.d:6).

The conclusion underlying each of these points is that educators must argue their case from an informed and rational standpoint. Increased awareness must be fostered amongst all educators, whether scientists or humanists. Only with the possession of relevant information will risk-inducing uncertainty be reduced so that the debate on real and perceived dangers may proceed with understanding, reason, and more common "meaning".

Awareness and Demystification

For over two years now the Education Faculty at Monash University has offered a class called "Data Processing and Information Retrieval". The class is located within the Educational Administration Masters programme, but access is not restricted to administrators. The broad aim of the class is to develop computer awareness amongst educators, introducing them to an ever-expanding range of relevant innovative computer applications. It assumes no prior knowledge of, or contact with, computers. The class comprises, at this stage, three elements:

(a) knowledge and use of AUSINET, a large scale data base whose files of documents include the North American Educational Resources Information Centre (ERIC) and the Australian Education Index (AEI). Users may gain listings of documents and literature relevant to all aspects of education.

(b) knowledge and use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. Users may gain some facility in using pre-programmed routines for analyzing quantitative data that they may have on some empirical project.

(c) knowledge and use of introductory programming in a "conversational" computer language such as BASIC. Users learn to understand, at a simple level, the logic of the machine, flowcharting, problem solving, and causing the machine to perform required functions.

The class makes use almost totally of interactive terminals. Since most of the projects set are of a small-scale exemplary nature, it is not necessary to work with large numbers of cases. The entry of data by cards is neither necessary nor, in this case, economical. Rather, users learn to communicate directly and immediately with the computer by means of various "typewriter" keyboards.

An IBM video display unit located in the University's main library is used to communicate with an IBM 360/70 located off campus at Australian Computer Industries as part of a nationwide telecommunications network for access to AUSINET. A "Teleray 2000" vidoe display unit and a Data Systems teletype located in the faculty building are used to communicate with the University's Burroughs 6700 computer. Two Tandy TRS-80 microcomputers, one Intelligent Systems Corporation (ISC) Intercolor microcomputer and two ISC Compucolor microcomputers are used for projects involving BASIC programming.

Again, the broad aim of the class is to develop computer awareness amongst educators. The underlying assumption is that for the most Australian postgraduate students in education (who are instructing the next generation of children in our primary and secondary schools), any previous contact with a computer would have been fortuitous and minimal, since the development of computer technology, particularly microcomputers, has been so rapid and so recent as to have "dated" degrees taken even as lately as five years ago. For many there would have been no contact at all other than through second-hand media accounts. In such a context, myths and misconceptions about computers abound. It appears to be particularly so amongst graduates in the humanities and social sciences, where the assertion is often that "technology is dehumanizing".

In 1979, some 41 students have passed through this class, 24 in first semester and 17 in second semester. An analysis of participant numbers according to "division", teaching area, and sex is shown in Table 1:

Table 1

Participants in Computer Awareness Program, 1979

		Semester 1	*Semester 2*	*Sub-Total*	*Total*
Division	Primary	3	4	7	41
	Secondary	17	5	22	
	Tertiary	3	6	9	
	Other	1	2	3	
Sex	Male	22	7	29	41
	Female	2	10	12	
Teaching Area	Humanities/Social Science	7	10	17	41
	Maths/Science	17	4	21	
	Other	—	3	3	

Discussion at the beginning of each semester established that participants divided themselves into three roughly equal groups in terms of previous first-hand experience with computers, from "moderate" experience to "none at all":

(a) moderate, having had a class or maybe two in computing during undergraduate degree work

(b) low, having had only cursory contact, not in a formal class

(c) none at all.

At the end of each thirteen week class, participants were asked to write a paragraph on each of two questions:

(a) what uses do you forsee computers having in schools in the next five years?

(b) do you feel "dehumanized" by computer technology?

Most responses to the first of these questions indicated that the computer is seen as playing an increasing role in administrative and classroom management functions in schools in the next five years. Only two out of the total of 41 expressed anything but total rejection of the second proposition, that they had been dehumanized by their exposure to computer technology in the class.

Those two who said they still had some reservations about the impact of computer technology tended to focus on two major problem areas:

(a) the possibility of increased unemployment due to the machine. (This is in part a structural economic consideration and should not be attributable only to computer technology.)

(b) the danger that computers will be controlled by "antihumanists" and hence be dehumanizing. (The implication here quite plainly is that humanists must share in the control of the machines.)

The following extracts represent, in random order, a few of the positive responses of the 41 students:

> I do not feel in any way "dehumanized" by my exposure to this technology. I simply regard the computer as an aid to my activities.
>
> I feel that the computer can be used to make administrative decisions more human, since the computer can take account of a greater number of variables than a human being (as long as the program allows it to do this).
>
> The exercises in programming have forced me to go back to basic principles and to use logical thought (for a change) in problem solving.
>
> I don't think it is the computers that dehumanize either. It is the way computers are used that can dehumanize and how they are used and how they are designed to be used is a human decision. Displacing jobs is a human decision; designing

computers to displace people is a human decision; putting people in a dehumanizing situation is a human decision.

Having tried my hand at simple programming has also made me realize that a computer does not function on its own, and that there is always a human behind the scenes who is involved in determining what the computer is able to do.

The main response I had, and perhaps the main adjective I would use rather than "dehumanizing", was one of demystification. I now feel that interacting with computers is basically the same as interacting with any other mechanism (though quicker and less accident prone).

I find computer logic strange at first (e.g. $x = x+1$) but I feel now it has made me think of unusual approaches to topics, especially maths and broadened by outlook as far as technology is concerned. I have always heard about the great advances in computing techniques, but direct access and exposure has really impressed it on to me.

If anything, I now feel humanized, of being freed of much "hack" work which is frequently required in administrative tasks of the nature that we have considered. The exercises in logic in developing programs are stimulating, frequently frustrating, and certainly humanistic in nature.

It is clear now that a little understanding can rapidly reduce our feelings of being dehumanized.

I believe that the limits of computer technology in education are only limited by the limitations of the educators.

Implications

For schools and for educational institutions in general there appear to be at least two broad areas in which we may discuss the implications of computer technology and of computer awareness programs:

1· Curricular implications

> *" ... the core of the problem of the misuse of science and technology ... (is) that present educational approaches (do) not facilitate a better understanding of science and technology by the non-scientist or (understanding) of cultures and values by the scientist and technologist".* (UNESCO–ASIAN Working Group, 1979).

For too long there have been those who have mystified and made esoteric their electronic machinery for what appear to have been reasons of vested interest. The fact is that the microcomputer has now made such "exclusive control" impossible to maintain. The microcomputer (or home computer) guarantees that everyone will develop some degree of familiarity with the machine.

Moreover, the increase in computing power and storage space along with the decline in costs have altered the function of the machine from predominantly "number crunching" mathematical applications to word processing and information management.

The proposition is clearly, then, that we all will be advantaged by a partnership in understanding and using the machine. Mathematicians, scientists and technologists may well need to concern themselves more with the value implications of actions they take and of computer programs they write. Social scientists and humanists may well benefit from developing at least a minimal understanding of the capabilities of the machine in that they may appreciate that the machine operates only in response to human will and according to who controls it.

Two particular curricular implications follow from such a partnership:

(i) courses at all levels must adopt a more interdisciplinary approach. As well as students taking several classes in the various "disciplines", the teaching approach adopted in any one class must expose students to the interrelationships between the various relevant fields of knowledge (Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology, 1979).

(ii) On going review of existing courses must lead to an emphasis on the needs of students and of society, rather than merely becoming "a process of adjusting to what teachers can teach" (Driscoll, 1978). In this sense, there may well be a need for retraining of teachers (as indicated earlier) to familiarize them with developments related to their teaching areas that have taken place since their initial training. Computer awareness amongst social scientists might well be one such area. It seems likely then that increasing emphasis will fall on these continuing education or inservice/retraining aspects of education (Bell, 1979).

2. Administrative implications

> "... *further technological change can be expected to create additional pressure to lengthen... courses based on the assumption that education is a package to be completed before commencing employment. Rapid technological change must challenge educators to develop alternative packages* ..." (Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology, 1979:13)

So, too, many of these programs may fall outside the traditional formal institutional framework where "courses for qualification" are the norm. Technological advances not only demand the development of alternative educational delivery systems (perhaps outside the formal institutional system) in order to assist individuals in keeping abreast of developments. In fact, technological advances also make such alternatives feasible. Some systems are already operating in the United States (for example, in Columbus, Ohio), where coaxial cable systems link resource banks and individual stations (such as homes) to two-way video and computer capabilities.

We are not so far away, then, from a radical rethink of what an educational institution looks like. Headley Beare's notion (1975) that "school is all over town" may yet reach fruition in this century. In such a context, administrators become increasingly resource managers operating through technological media. (Eye et al 1975). And there is the strong probability of promoting the pooling or scarce resource in times of increasing constraint. (Bramble, et al, 1977).

Finally there is the need for administrators to consider the means whereby they can reduce the risks perceived by teachers to be associated with the adoption of technological innovation and whereby they can enhance receptivity. It seems clear that teacher unions will mount an ultra-conservative reaction against such innovation on the basis that it "dehumanizes" a teaching profession dedicated to strong interpersonal relationships and that it costs people their jobs.

The charges have validity only in our unwillingness to review our concept of "the teacher" as we know him, for the machine can do nothing without its human manager. The fact is, if we return to our earlier definitions of "technology", that risks of dehumanization, if there are any, must emanate not only from the actual electro-mechanical processes (or hardware) of technological change but also from the "technical" organizational systems associated with decision making and communication, and from the people who control those systems. Some years ago, Argyris (1971) pointed out that computer technology is a challenge both to our "rationality and emotionality":

> ... the introduction of a sophisticated (computer) information technology is as much an emotional human problem that requires interpersonal competence (as well as technical competence) and that requires knowledge about the human aspects of organizations...

Thus the educational administrator will seek to encourage amongst his staff an exchange of ideas and information that will promote computer awareness and aid in the clarification of values of all concerned. Such encouragement will heighten a sense of participation in the process of innovation adoption and will work ultimately to lessen the uncertainty and risk associated with technological change.

REFERENCES

Ackoff, R.L., "Management Misinformation Systems", **Management Science**, 14, 4 (December 1967), B147–B156.

Argyris, C. "Management Information Systems: The Challenge to Rationality and Emotionality", *Management Science*, 17, 6 (February, 1971), 275–292.

Beare, H. et.al., *A Plan for Education in New Towns and Cities*. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service, 1975.

Bell, W. "Comparative Education: Training Teachers of Computer Education", *Comuter Education*, 32 (June 1979) 23–24.

Blackwell, F.W. "The Probable State of Computer Technology by 1980 - Some Implications for Education". Santa Monica: Rand Corporation, n.d.

Bramble, W.J., C.E. Hensley and D. Goldstein, "A Follow-up Report of the Appalachian Satellite Project". *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, 5, 2 (1976–77), 81–94.

Driscoll, J.P. "Dehumanize at Your Own Risk", *Educational Technology*, 18, 6 (June 1978), 34–36.

Elizur, D. and L. Guttman, "The Structure of Attitudes Towards Work and Technological Change Within an Organization", *Administrative Science Quarterly* 21 (December 1976), 611–622.

Ellul, J. *The Technological Society*, translated by John Wilkinson, New York: Alfred A. Knoff, 1964 and cited in Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974.

Everson, H. and S. Tobias, "Fear of Automation in Teachers' Attitudes Toward Instructional Media". Paper presented at the Annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Toronto, March 27–31, 1978. ED151314.

Eye, G.G. et.al., "Instructional Technology Reshapes the School: Its Impact on Faculty and Administrators", in R.W. Hostrop (ed). *Education — Beyond Tomorrow*. Education Futures No. 3. Chicago: E.T.C. Publications, 1975. ED121689.

Giacquinta, J.B. "Status, Risk and Receptivity to Innovations in Complex Organizations", *Sociology of Education*, 48, 1 (Winter 1975), 38–58.

Grayson, L.R. "Educational Technology – On Diversity in Education", *AV, Communication Review*, 24, 2 (1976), 117–134.

Jones, B., M.H.R., Parliament of Australia, cited in Stephen Downes, "Prepare for the Revolution", *The Age*, February 28, 1979. p.9.

Kast F. E. and J. E. Rosenzweig, *Organization and Management – A Systems Approach*. Second edition. New York: McGraw Hill, 1974.

Linton, R. *The Study of Man*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1936, and cited in Everett M. Rogers and F. Floyd Shoemaker, *Communication of Innovations – A Cross Cultural Approach*. Second edition. New York: The Free Press, 1971, p.1.

Mellor, W.L. "Dynamic Information Systems in an Educational Environment", *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 13, 2 (Spring, 1977), pp. 92–107.

Mesthene, E.G. *Technological Change*. New York: Mentor, 1970. p. 34, cited in Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974.

Moss, G.D. "The Influence of an In-Service Course in Educational Technology on the Attitudes of Teachers", *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 1, 10 (January 1979), 69–80.

Ogburn, W.F. *Social Change*. New York: Huebsch, 1922 and cited in Rogers and Shoemaker, 1971:1

Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology, Submission to the Committee of into Technological Inquiry Change in Australia, May 1979 (unpublished).

Thompson, J.D. and F.C. Bates, "Technology, Organization and Administration", *Administrative Science Quarterly*, December 1957, p. 325.

UNESCO-ASIAN Working Group, "The Human Implications of Scientific and Technological Development – Leura, October 2–7, 1978. Summary Report". Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service, 1979.

Widdup, D.; "The Impact of Technological Change in Education in Australia," *Youth Policy*, 3 (August 1979), 35–45 (comprising extracts from the submission of the Australian Teachers' Federation to the Committee of Inquiry into Technological Change in Austria.

DISCUSSION ADDENDUM I

Third World Countries and Technology

W.L. Mellor

The attached paper concerns itself generally with technology in industrialized countries, in particular in Australia. Indeed it has even been said that the computer technology it addresses heralds the new "post-industrial" society in such countries.

Such issues as are raised in it are relevant also to Third World countries. However, there are additional issues which perhaps more directly concern Third World countries at this point in time. These issues cluster around two major points: the appropriateness of technology; and adaptive strategies for coping with technological change.

Appropriate Technology

The accompanying paper mentions that innovations have form, function and meaning. In Third World countries there are often fundamental "functional" problems. Many of the technologies being promoted amongst Third World countries by the advanced Western economies are, in those contexts, totally inappropriate and "dysfunctional". They often remain unused, or the uses to which they are put are inappropriate, or the dislocation caused by the technology produces more negative effects than the problem it was intended to solve.

> ... The flow of technology from industrialized countries appears to have had even less utility in helping developing countries cope with the task of meeting the needs of large numbers, in some cases a majority, of their peoples... Much technological change in industrialized countries is simply irrelevant to Third World needs (except for small urbanized minorities) (Morehouse, 1978:15-16).

There is, on the other hand, the concomitant danger that if a Third World country is deprived of access to foreign technology, it may inevitably be condemned to "inferior nation" status. This prospect is as abhorrent as the former, for such countries often lack in themselves the necessary levels of available skilled manpower and finance for advancing to technological autonomy. Indeed, this threat of perpetual dependency is in the forefront of the minds of many Third World leaders who see a conspiratorial motive in the West's support for "genuine development" in terms of basic needs and small scale technology.

A recent meeting of the International Institute for Environment and Development pointed out that the issue is not one of all small scale, labour intensive technologies for "micro-enterprises" as against all large scale, capital intensive industrial technologies. Different kinds of technologies are needed for differing specific circumstances. None of these technologies is necessarily second rate: appropriateness (of scale) should not connote lack of sophistication. Appropriateness is an "approach", not a package of technology (Agarwal, 1979; Darrow and Pam, 1976; Dunn, 1978). It follows then that developed, as well as developing, countries have a stake in the notion of appropriate technology – that is, technologies that are appropriate to each specific environmental and cultural context.

Adaptive Stategies

The dysfunctionalism and dislocation brought about by inappropriate technology may be sheeted home to several possible motivations, including:

(a) Third World countries trying to do too much too fast

(b) the desire of Western countries to cooperate in the process of Third World development

(c) the exploitation of Third World countries by a process of technological imperialism. Dickson (1979) calls this "the Trojan horse of technological cooperation".

> ... Those developing countries which have moved farthest along the path [illegible]nerating growth with equity and of meeting the basic needs of most of their peoples have one quality in common – an increasingly autonomous capacity to fashion technological solutions appropriate to their economic and social conditions (Morehouse, 1978:17).

At least four major strategies or devices may be proposed whereby Third World countries may take advantage of some of the riches of technological advances while avoiding the worst risks associated with technological overdependence. They are collective self-reliance; selective delinking; indigenous information systems; and process consultancy.

1. Collective Self-Reliance

A policy of "Technical Cooperation among Developing Countries" (TCDC) is based on the premise that no single Third World country possesses the necessary skills and finance to develop satisfactorily all its own technological needs in a kind of technological "autarky". It is based also on the notion that no single Third World country is politically or strategically strong enough to resist all unwanted intrusions of industrialized technological imperialism. (Oteiza and Rahman, 1978).

Consequently, it proposes that Third World countries must take collective action so that self-reliance may be achieved through:

(a) together providing the skills and finance to meet their own technological needs

(b) together resisting unwanted foreign technologies

(c) together increasing their bargaining power on the international scene.

Research funds for projects relevant to Third World countries should, insofar as possible, be spent in Third World countries (Agarwal, 1979), thus helping to develop indigenous capabilities. Mechanisms should be established promoting mutual cooperation and information exchange.

2. Selective Delinking

Traditional practices have tended to aim at the relatively indiscriminate forming of intensive links between industrialized and Third World countries. An analysis is needed for identifying those technology and investment flows most beneficial and most harmful between countries, and for identifying appropriate control mechanisms which may need to be strengthened or created. Selective delinking is not the equivalent of wholesale disengagement of developing countries from the world economic system (Morehouse, 1978:26). Rather it implies that in certain spheres and for certain functions, Third World countries may individually and consciously choose not to import specific foreign technologies.

3. Indigenous Information Systems

In order to evaluate the relevance and appropriateness of foreign technologies there should be established clearing centres and information systems at various levels, including the local community, region and nation levels. (UNESCO-ASIAN Working Group, 1978; Agarwal, 1979). Such an information infrastructure will help to develop a national capability for generating indigenous information, for acquiring international information, for interpreting foreign information in terms of local needs, and for sharing and exchanging information on a national and an international level. It will also help in the training and education of potential indigenous information users (Australian National Commission to UNESCO, 1979:11). Most industrialized countries, including Australia, are only now realizing the full significance of information systems of this type:

> ...Access to information is of such fundamental importance that every one should become aware of the large range of sources of information. A national competence in information storage and retrieval is vital... (RMIT, 1979:22).

4. Process Consultancy

These information systems will work hand in hand with a new form of international "process" consultant. The information system will generate and store information derived from:

- analysis of real needs
- analysis of the availability of human and physical facilities
- analysis of efficiencies of existing local science and technology
- analysis of modified procedures on human relationships (UNESCO-ASIAN Working Group, 1978).

As distinct from the traditional "expert" consultant, who quite often offered specific solutions to pressing problems, the new process consultant is concerned to work with, to release and to develop the human resources that he finds on site, to engage local people in the process of participatory development. He offers expertise in the general processes of problem solving, personnel management and general organizational administration, as well as social skills, a sense of dedication and accountability to the people, sensitivity to local needs and an awareness of local and wider power relationships (Umali, 1978:1). In this sense, the consultant is concerned not primarily with the particular problem that a group might be working on at that point in time (though of course this, is very important), but rather with assisting that group to institutionalize within itself a set of procedures for dealing with problems and issues using available resources and expertise. His aim is to lead the group itself in the solution of its own problems and then to make himself "dispensable" (Havelock and Huberman, 1977).

Implications

The intended effects of these four proposals are not to isolate Third World countries from the advanced technologies of the industrialized nations. Rather it is to encourage in them the development of "technological autonomy" (Morehouse, 1978:16), that is the "capacity for creating, acquiring, adapting and using technologies most appropriate to their economic and social conditions". So may they take advantage of the riches of appropriate technology whilst avoiding some of the risks.

REFERENCES

Agarwal, Anil. "Technology Begins at Home". *Development Forum*, (March 1979), 7.

Australian National Commission to UNESCO, "Intergovernmental Conference on Scientific and Technological Information for Development (May 28–June 1, 1979)". *Newsletter*, 4 (July-August, 1979), 11.

Darrow, Ken and Rick Pam, *Appropriate Technology Sourcebook*. Stanford: Volunteers in Asia. Second edition, 1976.

Dickson, David, "Knowledge and Power" *Development Forum*. (June-July, 1979), 3.

Dunn, P.D. *Appropriate Technology: Technology with a Human Face*. London: McMillan, 1978.

Havelock, R.G. and A.M. Huberman, *Solving Educational Problems – The Theory and Reality of Innovation in Developing Countries*. Paris: UNESCO, 1977.

Morehouse, W. *Science, Technology, and the Global Equity Crisis: New Directions for United States Policy*. Occasional Paper 16. Muscatine, Iowa: The Stanley Foundation, May 1978.

Oteiza, E. and A. Rahman, "Technical Cooperation among Third World Countries and the International Order". Occasional Paper 3. Third World Forum. Cited in *Development Education Exchaneg*, 79/1/2. 1979.

Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology, Submission to the Committee of Inquiry into Technological Change in Australia, May 1979 (unpublished).

Umali, D.L., "Forward" in K. Bhasin, *Breaking Barriers – A South-east Asian Experience of Training for Participatory Development*. Bangkok: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, January 1979.

UNESCO-ASIAN Working Group, "The Human Implications of Scienctific and Technological Development – Leura, October 2–7, 1978. Summary Report." Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service, 1979.

DISCUSSION ADDENDUM II

Computer Awareness for Educators in England and Wales*

In 1977, as a follow-up to the British Prime Minister's speech at Duskin College, the Department of Education and Science and the Welsh Office initiated discussion with many organisations to assist in formulating a consultative paper dealing with computer education in schools in England and Wales. The British Computer Society was one of these organisations, and the society produced a document which had been prepared by its Education Board. The following details refer to the state of teacher training in England and Wales and are drawn from *Computer Bulletin*, March 1977:

1. The majority of serving teachers have no direct experience of computing; most of those that have are involved in the sciences, predominantly mathematics, physics and chemistry.
2. More forms of in-service training are necessary to familiarise teachers with the new techniques that are available in their specialist fields.
3. It would be reasonable in future to expect some form of information processing, and the appreciation of its use, to be a part of the normal training of every teacher.
4. A joint working party of the Society's Schools Committee, and the National Association of Teachers in Higher and Future Education is studying this aspect of teacher training and has already concluded that an understanding of the use of computers in schools administration ranks alongside their classroom use.
5. Because of the rapidly changing nature in the use of computing techniques, and the impact of this on society, updating courses will be required periodically during a teacher's career. The amalgamation of Colleges of Education with Polytechnics etc. in England and Wales, should facilitate closer involvement of industry with the initial training of teachers.

---

* Bell, W. "Comparative Education: Training Teachers of Computer Education". *Computer Education*, 32 (June 1979), 23-24.

THE REHABILITATION OF THE DEAF IN CYPRUS

Mr. Marcou,
Principal, School for the Deaf,
Nicosia, Cyprus.

PART I

OF SMALL POTATOES AND BIG ELEPHANTS, OF CABBAGES AND KINGS

Small Potatoes

No so long ago there were a number of deaf children in Cyprus, who roamed about the country doing a lot of mischief. They were very neglected, very dirty and very happy. Some people thought that it would be a good thing if they gave these children some education. So they collected them into a special School.

The children were very frightened at the idea but no one could give them much comfort because they could neither hear nor speak nor communicate in any way. Then in no time the more shrewd ones discovered the "secret" and spread it out among the rest:

- Do you know why they have collected us all in this place? They are going to feed us well so that we shall get fat and then they will make us into kebab!! That's why mamma and dad have gone away in tears!!

And so the panic began. The place was not a School any more but a menagerie. With their wild cries they could pull down the walls of Jericho. They walked about the place with raised tails and bare teeth ready to defend themselves against any foe. Here are a few of these children as I described them in a diary in those early days, 27 years ago.

A.J. is 9 years old. By comparison, John the Baptist in his camel-hair shirt is really second-rate. He is wearing four shirts and three pairs of pants which he has collected from the scarecrows. But they cannot hide his nakedness. The huge army boots just keep to his tiny feet by some force of personal magnetism. Since the age of 5 he has been looking after his grandfather's flock of sheep. So, whenever he wants to draw our attention, he barks like a sheep-dog...

A.H. perhaps he is 5 years old. Nobody knows how he has come into this world, nor is there such a name in any Register of Births. We discovered him living in the Turkish cemetery of Kyrenia with an old hag who receives £3 a month from the Welfare Department, for his board and lodging. Actually his lodgings is a wooden box under the hearse, where the Mahommedans wash their dead before burial.

(*Note:* He is the culprit for the "secret". The old hag had told him that. She did not like the idea of his going away because she would lose her allowance.)

S.C. ... is the terror of the shop-keepers in the old quarter of Nicosia. Her face is covered with dried-up sweat, her hair covered with all sorts of pins, flowers, perfume and insects. She watches your every movement with intense suspicion with two huge Byzantine eyes and bares her teeth like a wild cat if you do not keep your distance. She bites.

Communication

I like to think of Language as a Bus. All the wisdom of the human race travels in this Bus. When we are born we receive as a gift our hearing which is our ticket for the Bus. Daily, as we travel along, we absorb knowledge and wisdom. The Deaf child has no ticket.

When finally the children settled down at School we set about burning our midnight oil to fashion their ticket for the Bus. Syllable by syllable, word by word, after years and years of patient work, they finally made it. In the meantime, however, and through no fault of their own, the children grew up and had to leave the School and the security which it offered them. Now the crucial decision had to be taken, either to send the children back to the environment from which they had been taken out, or to accept responsibility for their rehabilitation and after-care also. So we began a wild hunt for jobs for the first graduates of the School. We knocked at every door. People barricaded themselves behind their prejudices. They had recognised our tickets as faked. Everybody turned a deaf ear.

The Big Elephants

Near the School there was a big Elephant who had barns full of corn and hundreds of people working for him. So to him we first went and offered to work for him for a few grains of corn. He almost had a stroke. Then he poured out all the arguments about industrial accidents, communication barriers and no time to explain, pay my taxes and give to charities, am very sympathetic and will always help you but can't do anything at the moment really, and it is the duty of the Chief Elephant to help you, he really must ... I'm sorry...

From there we went to the next big Elephant and the next and finally we decided to go to the Chief Elephant. He was very sympathetic indeed but

– My barns are not as full of corn as you imagine, he said. In fact they are almost empty. You see, I'm the Chief Elephant of an Underdeveloped Country.

(the term Developing Country was coined some years later). It's as simple as that, there is not enough corn to go round. Sorry.

From the Valley of Despair to the Dawn of Hope

The scenery is the first week of September 1961. There are 18 young deaf people sitting in a semicircle straining their necks like chicken expecting to be fed. Then somebody takes out of his pocket one string and invites one of them to pull it. The string snaps. Then he puts two strings together, then 3, 4, 5, ... and then 18 strings make a very strong rope, which won't snap. The deaf people see the moral of the demonstration. And that is how the CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETY OF DEAF PERSONS LTD came into being. They paid 3 shillings each as the first installment for a Share and so was raised the initial Capital of 54 shillings on which the Co-operative would eventually build the most ambitions projects for the welfare and the rehabilitation of the adult deaf.

PART II

THE CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETY OF DEAF PERSONS LTD

The Co-operative obtained its Charter from the Commissioner of Co-operatives, in September 1961. From then of it went through Fire and High Water to establish employment opportunities for its members, to feed and clothe and house them and to raise them to the surface of society. For the deaf youth of Cyprus this period is their true Epic which is to be written yet. The essence of it is that over the years the Co-operative developed into a big business concern, managed by its deaf members, without any grants or subsidies, but relying exclusively on its own strength and on self-financed projects.

Management

The responsibility for the operation of the Co-operative is in the hands of a Committee elected by and from among the working deaf members. The Committee appoints the Secretary-Manager, the technical and clerical staff, decides on contracts, on wage rates, on benefits to members, on investments and expansion and generally on all problems relevant to the operation of a business concern.

Snakes and Ladders

By 1974 the Co-operative possessed one of the largest and best equipped furniture factories in Cyprus, which employed 60 deaf people. There was also a Dress-making department and a Weaving department which employed 18 female workers. Their wages were from 10-20% higher than in similar factories for the hearing. In 1974 the yearly turnover was expected to exceed £240,000-- of which appr. £30,000-- would be net profits.

The Turkish invasion of Cyprus in July 1974 was a karate chop for the Co-operative. The factories were bombed and destroyed, the deaf members fled to the South leaving everything behind. At the top of the ladder the Cooperatve fell into the Snake's mouth and landed back to square one.

The Ascent from Square One

In September 1974 the Co-operative rented a farm n the South in order to offer some kind of employment to its members but also to maintain its image until more favourable conditions would arise. Within 18 months the members were again able to reactivate their workshops on the present site. The re-activation still continues and the indications are that in 1980 the pre-invasion figures will be surpassed.

Evaluation of the benefits

1. Since the establishment of the Co-operative in 1961 (even during the dramatic events of 1974) there have always been full employment opportunities for every deaf person in the country. No deaf person, skilled or unskilled, has ever been refused employment in the Co-operative. This applies also to deaf persons with multiple handicaps who find it impossible to secure employment anywhere else. At present 7 such multiple-handicapped members, who were formenly public assistance recepients, now pay income tax.

2. The social rehabilitation of the deaf is enhanced by their acceptance of responsibility in the management of their own business affairs, and by their economic emancipation.

3. *"Inverse Integration"*. To meet the demand for its products the Co-operative engages hearing persons to work in its factories, but the deaf are the employers. The impact on the social integration of the deaf is unique. We have coined the term "Inverse Integration" to describe it.

4. The Co-operative is also the lever for many other services for the adult deaf, which the economy of a developing country is not able to initiate or to support. In this way, 25% of the profits of the Co-operative in each year go for programmes of general deaf welfare like the Sports Union of the Deaf, the Club and Hostel for Working Deaf People, grants to married deaf couples etc...

5. In the pre-invasion days the Co-operative had just initiated an ambitious housing programme for its members. The programme, which provided for a Deaf Persons' Building Society, had to be postponed until the Co-operative recovers from the blows of the invasion.

G. Markou
Secretary-Manager
Co-op. Society of Deaf Persons

MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT FOR SCHOOL PRNCIPALS

Mr. G. Williams,
Sheffield City Polytechnic.

> *"That education is alone of value which draws out the faculties of a student so as to enable him or her to solve the problems of life."*
>
> Mahatma Gandhi (1)

> *"All too often we are giving people cut flowers when we should be teaching them to grow their own plants. We are stuffing their heads with the products of earlier innovation rather than teaching them how to innovate."*
>
> John W. Gardner (2)

INTRODUCTION

In this paper I shall try to cover some of the thinking behind our work with school principals and the ways in which we have tried to help them to develop as managers. The we here refers specifically to myself, John Elliot-Kemp and Joe Campbell from the Department of Education Management at Sheffield City Polytechnic, UK. Initially I shall consider the question of "what is education management?" and try to describe some aspects of it which seem important to me. I shall then look at some of the possible alternative content areas for a management development programme and then present the model of the management development process which we have found most useful.

EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

Education management is that branch of theory and practice relating to the management of educational organisations such as schools and colleges. It has some aspects in common with other types of management but certain issues, such as clarity of, and agreement about goals and values, seem more central to education management. It's major concern with the development and growth of people also differentiates it from many other types of management. However as long as these differences are born in mind, the study of education management can gain much from the research, theory and practice of other types of management that have been more intensively studied.

The Concept of Management

It is difficult to find a totally satisfactory definition of management, although many have attempted to define it. A few examples are:–

> "Management" is concerned with seeing that jobs get done, and done efficiently. Its task all centre on decisions for planning and guiding the operations that are going on in an enterprise. (EF Brech).[3]
>
> ... management is defined as the process by which a cooperative group directs action towards common goals. (J.L. Massie).[4]
>
> To manage is to forecast and plan, to organise, to command, to co-ordinate and to control. (H. Fayol).[5]
>
> (Management is) the search for the best use of resources in pursuit of objectives subject to change. (D. Keeling).[6]
>
> ... management has to manage. And managing is not just passive, adaptive behaviour; it means taking action to make the desired results come to pass...
>
> Management is a multi-purpose organ that manages a business *and* manages managers *and* manages worker and work. (P. Drucker).[7]
>
> Management ... consists of the formulation and operation of the policy of the enterprise. (*Fulton Committee on the Civil Service*).[8]
>
> ... the co-ordination of group effort toward an established purpose ... effected primarily through people, via techniques, in an organisation, and toward objectives ... management is the process of integrating human and material resources into a total system for objective accomplishment. (F.E. Kast and J.E. Rosenzweig).[9]

Basically management would seem to be concerned with getting things done through and with other people and is usually conceived of in an organisational setting. As Elliott-Kemp[10] (1979) has pointed out management like teaching is a polymorphous concept. It can consist of an almost limitless list of potential activities and one cannot necessarily elucidate the concept directly from one of the activities.

Activities and Roles of Managers

There have been many attempts to study how a manager spends his time and what he actually does. Mintzberg[11] (1973) has summarised a great deal of work in this area and tried to bring the studies together in his classification of ten managerial roles. These are grouped in three areas, interpersonal, informational and decisional.

It can be very informative for a principal to look at his own job in terms of Mintzberg's framework and to see the emphasis which he places on the different roles. It is useful to use a diary method to log what is actually done (see for example Stewart (1965)[12] and (1968)[13] but even a more superficial estimation can prove enlightening. Are there some roles which are neglected and which ought to be carried out? Are there some roles which are over-emphasised perhaps because of a particular liking for this aspect of the job? How does the actual profile of roles compare with the ideal profile for the job? What steps should be taken to change the role emphasis?

A different perspective for looking at the managers job is in terms of Morris' (1974)[14] three fold classification.

- doing new things,
- keeping things going,
- dealing with breakdowns or failure,

with its fourth over-arching concept, particularly important for top management, the integration of the above three types of activities. Again it can be useful for a principal to classify his job in terms of these three categories and to evaluate his performance both in terms of ratios between types of activities and how well he is doing each activity.

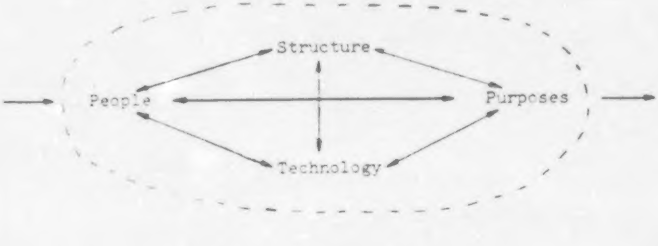
Morris' classification is also useful in looking at the total organisation and its emphasis.

The Organisational Context of Management

The most prevalent way of conceiving organisations is in terms of systems which comprise elements interacting together in a patterned manner. Change in one element will bring about changes in other elements. In theory it should be possible to predict the changes that will occur due to the patterning rather than randomness of the system. Another feature of organisations as systems is the permeable nature of their boundary. Theyare open systems and are affected by and affect their environment. For example, changes in the law may affect the way schools are organised. Changes in what children are taught in schools may affect the whole of society.

Conceiving organisations as organic open systems can provide some useful insights regarding the management of organisations. However it is wise to bear in mind that this is really an analogy and some writers (i.e. Silverman (1970)[15] and Greenfield (1973)[16] have been very critical of this over acceptance of this analogical approach to the conceptualisation of organisations. Their alternative is a phenomenological approach; organisations are what people make of them or how they perceive them. Indeed Greenfield talks of organisations as social inventions. In managing an organisation it can be helpful to keep in mind both of these perspectives.

A useful classification of elements (adapted from Leavitt) (1976)[17] in organisations is in terms of purposes, structures, people and technology existing within an environment with a permeable boundary between the organisation and the environment. The four elements interact and affect each other and the invironment so that changes in one element will affect one or more of the other elements. We can represent this diagramatically.



Elliott-Kemp[18] has applied these elements to educational organisations and describes them as follows:

Purposes. Strictly speaking organisations cannot have goals or purposes: only persons can have goals. But agreement among people within the organisation, especially among those with formal powers, can come to be accepted as the goals of the organisation. The purposes, goals and objectives pursued within the organisation may be clear or vague, personal or impersonal, but there must be some measure of agreement on goals and purposes for the system to function at all. These goals or objectives of the organisation generate the duties and tasks required from staff, and which are classified under the heading of structure.

Structure. This may be thought of as the network of roles in an organisation that represent the legitimate and durable arrangements by which the organisation's work gets done. In a school or college this will usually be visible in the form of departments, reflecting the division of the curriculum into specialisms. The structure with then take the form of a division of labour, with teachers teaching different specialisms, and perhaps differing grades of student. The structure of the organisation will also be visible in the organisational hierarchy, in the location of authority and responsibility, and in the committee-system and decision-making machinery of the organisation.

Technology. This can be defined as the systematic procedures and techniques for transforming a school or college's 'raw materials' into its 'finished products'. A considerable influence in the choice of these techniques will be staff's conception of the nature of the 'raw material' with which they deal, and thus what is necessary to transform it (see Street, Vinter and Perrow, (1966)[19] for some interesting case studies relevant to this issue). Under the heading of technology, then, will be not only the range of teaching-learning strategies and resources used in the organisation, but also the school's position on a continuum of attitudes towards student control: for example from a 'custodial' to a 'humanistic' ideology. Parallel to staff attitudes to student control will be the principal's attitude to his staff as an aspect of technology. The principal may make assumptions about people which operate as the implicit theory in terms of which he decides how to deal with his staff and students. These assumptions will reflect a philosophical position on the nature of man, and the principal's 'model of man' may well be a self-fulfilling prophecy in determining how staff behave in relation to each other and to their work (Schein, 1970).[20]

People. The staff of a school or college is the driving force which most of all is responsible for its achievement: people are involved in the determination of goals, the fulfilling of roles within the structure, and the knowledge, skills and attitudes which underpin the technology of the system. People, structure and technology are all means to achieving the ends, or purposes, of the organisation. But people are not only means to achieving ends: a person is also an end in himself, as well as a means to others ends. People have minds, purposes and wills of their own.

This last point highlights one of the dangers inherent in management thinking. Classification and conceptualisation can often lead to treating people as objects with the resultant formation of what Buber (1958)[21] terms I – it relationships as opposed to I – thou relationships. This can then lead to relationship problems of suspicion, distrust and opposition between manager and subordinates.

In an open system there are also inputs and outputs. Inputs can be separated into resource inputs and demand inputs. Resource inputs include the economic ones such as money and what it can buy, political inputs such as power authority and legitimacy, and people inputs including their skill, experience, goodwill and motivation. Demand inputs refers to peoples expectations of the organisation and the way these expectations operate on an influence the organisation. Demand may arise from a variety of sources, the education authority, the parents, society or government.

Outputs comprise all that goes out from the organisation and may include increase in pupil knowledge, change in pupil attitude, some sort of community development (see for example Cranston and Williams (1978)[22] and changes in parents expectations and attitudes.

Issues in Education Management

Education and its management are concerned basically with people. Most of the issues and problems that arise in managing an educational organisation involve people. Indeed the quality of relationships in the school is one of the most important aspects of management and it has a bearing on everything that people in schools are trying to do. Relationships between the school and people in its environment are also important.

1. Goals and Values

Ultimately education management is concerned with the creation of the 'best' environment for learning, bearing in mind the constraints of the situation. But learning what? This issue of educational goals is one of the central problems faced by the manager in education. King (1973)[23] has argued that a school's activities have a dichotomy, they are instrumental, concerned with the acquisition of specific skills and expressive, concerned with conduct, character and manner. This dual nature of goals can present problems in the control function. Instrumental goals are easier to measure and to control. This can lead to an overemphasis on the attainment of this type of goal at the expense of the more intangible, long term expressive goals (see Williams (1976).[24] As well as the ambiguous, dichotomous nature of educational goals there is also often a fair amount of disagreement about what the goals should be and what the priorities between goals should be.

This becomes more pronounced as we move from vague to more specific descriptions of what we are trying to do. Not only are there disagreements amongst the people in the organisation, people outside such as parents, society in general, journalists and education authorities also feel they should have a say in what happens in schools. These goals stem from peoples values. Managing the plurality of values is one of the principal's key management tasks.

What are the chief values underlying education in this country?
What difficulties arise in realising these values?
How clear are all relevant people about the aims of the school?
How clear are the staff about their own values and aims?
Do staff discuss and re-examine their aims?

2. Resources

How well are resources identified?

What are the most important resources available to the Principal? These will include materials, personal and political resources: Some will be intangible such as trust and reputation.

How well are resources acquired and controlled?
What are the qualities of this allocation of resources?
Is the best use made of resources both in terms of efficiency and effectiveness?

3. Staff recruitment, selection and promotion

How effective is the recruitment system?

How well do staff appointed fit the needs of the organisation in terms of knowledge, skills, attitudes and experience that they bring to the job?

4. Organisational structure

Are people's roles clear and unambiguous?
Is there any role duplication or overlap?
Are there any important gaps between roles?

Is there a suitable means of integrating the separate functions and roles within the school?

Are all the separate efforts co-ordinated towards the achievement of the schools' aims and purposes?

5. Control

Does the right information go to the right people at the right time, so that the functioning of the school can be monitored?

Is the information from the control system used in the most effective and efficient way?

6. Leadership

Is the leadership philosophy of the school founded on the type of assumptions that brings out the best in staff rather than limiting their potential?

Does the leadership style enable staff and pupils to make their best contributions to the school?

Are staff treated as objects or people?
Do decision making procedures enhance commitment?
Is there an element of selfishness in the leadership?
Is there too much or too little control from the principal and the top management team?

7. Motivation

How committed are the staff?
Are they prepared to work hard and willingly for the good of the school?

8. Teamwork and Conflict

How well do staff work together?

Is there a good team spirit?

Are common tasks and problems tackled as a team effort?

Is the amount of conflict between individuals and groups maintained at a level where it is functional rather than dysfunctional?

Is the amount of conflict between individuals and groups maintained at a level where it is functional rather than dysfunctional?

9. Creativity

How creative are the staff in their jobs?

Is creativity encouraged, recognised and used?

Could the school be described as a creative school?

10. Planning, problem solving and coping

How well does the school cope with the various demants it faces?

Can it forecast and take stapes to meet future demands?

Does the school just react to events or is it also pro-active-causing events to happen?

Is enough forward planning carried out?

11. Staff development and in-service training

Do new staff receive sufficient help to cope with their new job and organisation?

Are staff continually learning to improve their present performance?

Is there sufficient preparation for future tasks and roles that staff will carry out?

Are there enlightened attitudes towards staff development?

Is there a formal policy for staff development and in-service training?

Is in-service training geared to the needs of the organisation?

12. Relationships

To what extent can people trust each other?

Is there too much suspicion amongst staff?

Can the school be described as a caring community?

Are relationships between the school and the local community as good as they might be?

The Principal and Education Management

A Principal is concerned first and foremost with the effective and efficient running of his school. If management is working through and with others to achieve results, then the major part of a principal's job is concerned with education management. A principal has a duty to learn what he can about the art and skill of managing. He must become aware of the factors in his school which influence the quality of education and he must learn how to enhance the quality of education by working with these factors. A selection of these factors has been mentioned in the section on issues above.

THE CONTENT OF MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

What should be taught, or learned, on a management development programme for school principals. There ought to be some conceptual basis for decisions about content. They should follow from our ideas about what constitutes education management and what constitutes an effective education manager.

We could use a particular approach to management such as Fayol's and cover forecasting and planning, organising, commanding, co-ordinating, and controlling. However the point has been well made by Mintzberg[25] (1975) that these tell us very little about what managers actually do. At best they indicate some vague objectives. In contrast his managers roles are based on studies of how managers spend their time. From using his concepts in my teaching it seems that they relate quite well to education managers and it would be interesting to base a management development programme on his roles.

An alternative approach to content decisions that we have tried is to look at the qualities, skills, attributes etc. of the effective principal and to base the training on these. We have developed a model of professional effectiveness going well beyond the knowledge skills and attitudes paradigm using Bateson's[26] (1973) ideas of levels of learning. In addition we have devised a professional effectiveness questionnaire based on the model which is designed to identify individual professional development needs.

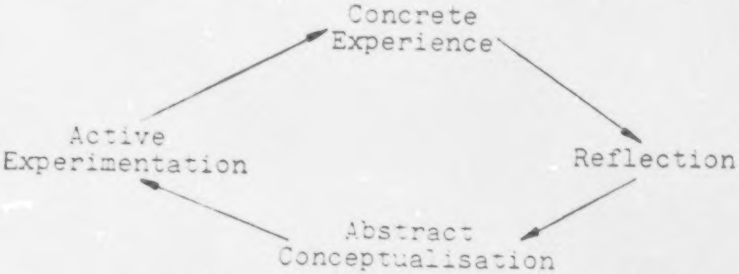
A further alternative is to look at the organisational context and to build a programme around the various elements in the system and the interaction between elements. The systems model outlined previously has certainly influenced our course planning both directly and also indirectly from the issues in education management which stem from it. From our analysis of the issues in education management we have developed a diagnostic instrument DION, Diagnosing Individual and Organisational Needs[27] which consists of a series of statements which might be applicable to a school. The respondent to the inventory has to say whether each statement is broadly true or not for his school. This produces a profile of perceived problem areas for his school. Ideally we should get a large sample of the staff in the school to complete the inventory and summate the results. We have managed to do this in some cases. In the case of an established principal DION highlights areas for his development so that he can deal with the problems in his school. In our programmes we have used this as a way of teaching organisation diagnosis and also as a diagnostic tool for looking at the development needs of course members. If we are running a course for principals then DION produces a list of content areas for the course so that further parts of the course can be based on the principals development needs following from the school diagnoses and we can then deal with ways of solving the particular problems raised by DION.

Another way that DION has been used in the management development of principals is where DION has been given either by us or the principal to the teachers in a specific school. We have then acted as consultants working with the principal in his school on the problem areas which came out of the diagnosis. What was intended as an organisation development effort became in addition a personalised management development programme for the principal.

THE PROCESS OF MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

How can managers and in particular principals learn most effectively? Once we have answered this question we can decide how they should be taught.

The model of management learning that we have found particularly stimulating and helpful in our teaching is Kolb's experiential learning model (Kolb 1974)[28] Kolb conceives of the learning process as a four stage cycle in which concrete experience (and its related feelings) are followed by reflection. This leads to abstract conceptualisation or theorising followed by application and testing or active experimentation. The process is cyclical since the application stage consists of actions which lead to new experiences



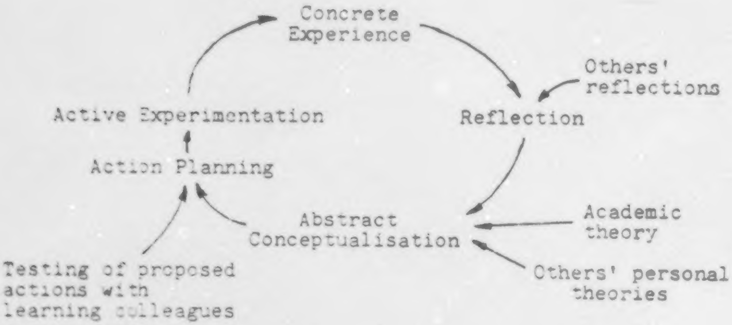
In our teaching we have used this model, or models derived from it as a basis for structuring a variety of sessions on our courses, although we tend to use a fair proportion of what have come to be known as structured exercises (see for example Elliott-Kemp and Williams 1978[29].)

We have found that learning is considerably enhanced when the learners (and this may include tutors) have developed into a cooperative learning group (see Williams (1978)).[30] This and other experiences involve the following modifications to the learning model.

The reflection stage seems to be improved if in addition to individual reflection there is group discussion and reflection within a supportive group.

Abstract conceptualisation is at a personal level in the model and the formation of personal concepts can be helped by bringing in theory in the form of a lecture or reading. In addition group discussion of personal concepts can make them more valid.

We have also found it useful to add a stage between abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation, that of action planning. It seems useful to plan in some detail any planned changes in behaviour, particularly those to be applied back in the school situation. This stage is also assisted by testing out one's plans with colleagues in a cooperative learning group. We have also used a contract negotiation exercise at this stage where course members negotiate a contract to bring about some change in their own behaviour. With these additions the learning model thus becomes


Concrete Experience
Others' reflections
Reflection
Active Experimentation
Action Planning
Abstract Conceptualisation
Academic theory
Others' personal theories
Testing of proposed actions with learning colleagues

I think the model can also be enriched by comparing it with Revans[31] system beta paradigm which is also a type of learning model. This paradigm is a five stage cycle of

(i) an attention-fixing event occurring within a framework of systematically-classified experience;

(ii) a new constructive relationship perceived, or thought to be perceived, in or around this event;

(iii) a controlled attempt to exploit this relationship for some desired purpose;

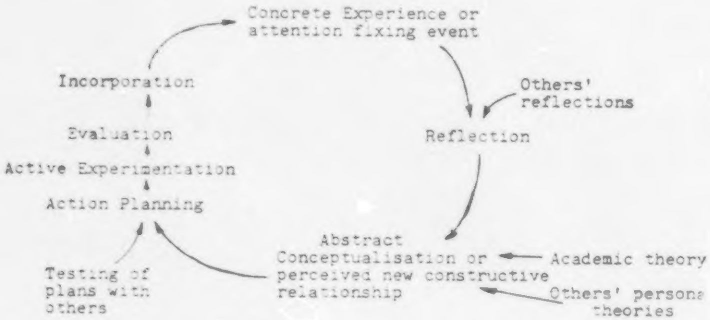
(iv) an audit or inspection of the results of this controlled exploitation; and

(v) the incorporation (or not) of the relationship into the experience of the manager.

Stage five is understated here. Later Revans states "Stage Five of system beta thus calls for more than the process of intellectualised sequencing implicit in Stages One to Four; it demands self-commitment, and at times a courage to challenge and even to change, one's fundamental beliefs."

Thus in Revans' scheme (i) the attention fixing event corresponds to Kolb's concrete experience and (ii) the new perceived constructive relationship corresponds to Kolb's abstract conceptualisation. Section (iii) is like active experimentation, but there are then two extra stages evaluation, and incorporation into the experience and values of the manager. The final important stage of incorporation can be facilitated by Revans' action learning groups or by Williams' support groups.

The learning model now becomes


Concrete Experience or attention fixing event
Others' reflections
Reflection
Abstract Conceptualisation or perceived new constructive relationship
Academic theory
Others' persona theories
Testing of plans with others
Action Planning
Active Experimentation
Evaluation
Incorporation

This more complicated model seems useful in planning learning situations. We can always revert to a simpler version if it seems more appropriate. It is quite difficult to appreciate the model fully by just reading about it. It is far better to experience it first and to then move through the various stages of the cycle.

THE MOST IMPORTANT CONTENT AREA

There are various levels of change that can be brought about by a management development programme:

1. We may have produced a hostile reaction – "that was a waste of time".

2. We may have made no impact at all.
3. Course members may have learnt some facts or theory in the area of education management. They may even have found the course interesting.
4. Course members may have learnt new techniques and skills such as critical path analysis and planning skills – and the application of these to the school situation.
5. They may have undergone personal change in that they now relate to others in new ways. Their leadership style may have changed. This is the incorporation stage of the learning model. They may be managing their schools better.
6. Finally they may have learnt how to develop. The learning model itself forms part of the content of the course. It is reinforced by the use of the model in conjunction with a series of "experiential exercise" aimed at other content areas. They may have incorporated the learning model itself so that they use it for their own continued development after the formal course has finished. They are then at a stage of continual development.

This final stage is the one that indicates really succecsful management development. They are better able to solve new problems and to create their own innovations.

REFERENCES

1. Anand M R (ed) "Sayings of Mahatma Gandhi" Lalvani Publishing House, Bombay 1971.
2. Gardner J W "No Easy Victories" New York, 1968.
3. Brech E F, "The Principles and Practice of Management" (2nd ed) Longman 1963
4. Massie J L "Essentials of Management" Practice-Hall 1964.
5. Fayol H "General and Industrial Management" Pitman 1949 (original edition 1916)
6. Keeling D "Management in Government" Allen and Unwin 1972.
7. Drucker P "The Practice of Management" Heinemann 1955.
8. Fulton Committee on the Civil Service 1968.
9. Kast F E and Rosenzweig J E "Organisation and Management: a systems approach" McGraw Hill 1970.
10. Elliott-Kemp J (1979) "Education Management and Educational Development" Psychology and Education. Sardar Patel, University Gujerat, India – forthcoming.

11. Mintzberg H (1973) "The Nature of Managerial Work" Harper & Row.
12. Stewart R (1965) "The Use of Diaries to Study Managers" Jobs" The Journal of Management Studies, Vol. 2, pp. 228–285.
13. Stewart R (1968) "Diary Keeping as a Training Tool for Managers" The Journal of Management Studies Vol 5, pp. 295–303.
14. Morris J. (1974) "Developing Resourceful Managers" in Taylor B and Lippett G L. "Managing Development and Training Handbook" McGraw-Hill 1975.
15. Silverman D (1970) "The Theory of Organisation" Heinemann
16. Greenfield T B (1973) "Organisations as Social Inventions: Rethinking Acsumptions About Change" Journal of Applied Behavioural Science. Vol 9, No. 5, pp. 551–574.
17. Leavitt H (1976) "Managerial Psychology" 4th ed University of Chicago Press.
18. Elliott-Kemp J (1977) op cit.
19. Street D, Vinter R, and Perrow C (1966) "Organisation for Treatment" Free Press, Macmillan.
20. Schein E H (1970) "Organisational Psychology" 2nd ed Prentice-Hall.
21. Buber M (1958) "I and Thou" 2nd ed translated by R G Smith T and T Clark.
22. Cranston D and Williams G L (1978) "Improving Nutrition though Community Action" Community Health, Vol 9, No. 3, pp. 159–166.
23. King R, (1973) "School Organisation and Pupil Involvement – A Study of Secondary Schools" Routledge and Kegan Paul.
24. Williams G L (1976) "The Validity of Methods of Evaluating Learning" European Training, Vo. 5, No. 1, pp. 12–20.
25. Meintzberg H, "The Manager's Job: Folklore and Fact" Harvard Business Review, July/August 1975, pp. 49–61.
26. Bateson G "Steps to an Ecology of Mind" Paladin 1973.
27. Elliott-Kemp J and Williams G L "Diagnosing Individual and Organisational Needs" Pavic Sheffield – forthcoming.
28. Kolb D A "On Management and the Learing Process" in Kolb D A, Rubin I M and McIntyre J M (eds) "Organisational Psychology: A Book of Readings" Second edition Prentice–Hall, 1974, pp. 27–42.
29. Elliott-Kemp J and Williams G L "Golden Awards: A Closure Activity" in Pfeiffer J W and Jones J E "Th 1978 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators" University Associates California, pp. 12–14.
30. Williams G L "Cooperative Learning in Management Education" Journal of European Industrial Training, Vol. 2, No. 5, 1978, pp 13–15.
31. Revans R W "Leadership, Creativity and Learning" mimeo undated.

TOWARDS A LEADERSHIP DESIRABILITY SCALE

(Development of a scale for initial insight into the possible educational role for the ideological dimension of an hypothesized U-configuration model of authoritarian personality.)

Dr. L. R. Miller,
Sub Dean and Senior Lecturer,
University of Queensland.

L. R. Smith,
Subject Master
Ipswich Grammar School.

BACKGROUND

During the awakening of our political consciousness, suggests Kreml, we must spend considerable time watching and listening to those radio and television programmes which bring spokesmen of various political views, who argue about a variety of political issues. The value of such debates lies in the presentation of the individual and the insights gained by the listener into the attitudes and values held by the speakers. Intertwined in the process is the style and argument presented. The most fascinating aspects are the subtle differences in the personal values of the advocates. Underlying the advocacy of the issues under discussion are the contexts from which the advocates use as guiding frameworks.

If one accepts the structure of an advanced industrial society is at least partly dependent on the structure of its education system, then the corollary should be that the structure of the education system (including the psychological stimuli it offers) will usually be at least partly dependent on the structure of society itself. This means that a society may reinforce its existence by predominantly attracting to its education system educators with a personality predisposition towards the basic structural values of the society. One could take this argument a step further and suggest that this reinforcement process would be strengthened by both the role structure of the educational organization, and the particular role that the educator is asked to play. To illustrate this point, Castetter has provided an example utilizing organalysis.

Information is the key to making judgments about the placement of an individual in the position. This includes learning as much as possible about the applicant and the specific position in which he will be working so that careful judgment can be made as to their compatibility.

Jaglier states that the selection process frequently overlooks important placement elements.

> "The leadership and followership styles of the applicant; the style of the person he will report to; the styles of those who will report to him (if the position is administrative) and the structure of the job situation."

Figure I Interaction of Org Elements

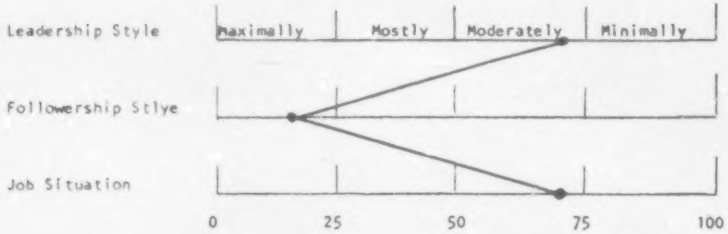
	Maximally	Mostly	Moderately	Minimally
Leadership Style	Power Monopolizer	Power Keeper	Power Sharer	Power Giver
	Structure – Imposing			
Followership Style	Power Rejecter	Power Avoider	Power Preferrer	Power Demander
	Structure – Dependent			
Job Situation				
	Inherently Structured			

0 25 50 75 100

In Fig. 1 the indication is that leadership style, followership style, and the job situation are each placed on a continuum. The leadership continuum, for example, represents all leadership styles, ranging from those who are inclined to retain all their power, and to structure all their followers activities, to those who tend to share their power and impose little if any structures on their followers.

The Org pattern in Fig. 2 illustrates its application to personnel placement. Numerically the Org pattern would be expressed as 72-20-70 wherein the leader is a principal, the follower is a candidate for a teaching position, and the position is considered to be generally unstructured.

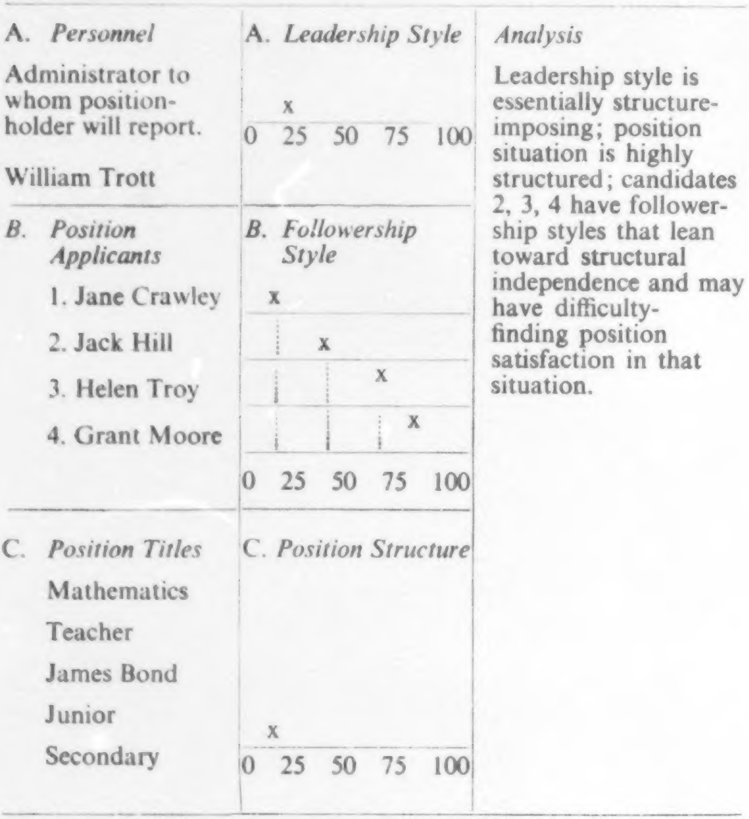
Figure 2 Illustration of Application of Organalysis



Placement of this particular candidate in this situation would probably lead to difficulties for the system, the leader, and the applicant, for the leader and the position are identified on the instructured side of the continuum and the follower has a strong need for structure.

An example of the use of Organalysis in the selection process is illustrated in Fig. 3 with reference to compatibility of applicants with the leader and the requirements of the position. This approach contributes to strengthening the employment decision by expanding the dimensions to be considered in selecting and placing applicants.

Figure 3 An Illustration of Organalysis



Leadership style is essentially structure-imposing; position situation is highly structured; candidates 2, 3, 4 have followership styles that lean toward structural independence and may have difficulty-finding position satisfaction in that situation.

Another illustration of the need to locate measures of personality types for team teaching arrangements. Von Haden and King argued that more important than materials, space and schedule arrangements are the attitudes, understandings and working relationships that exist among the members of the team. Mutual agreement on objectives, mutual trust, and mutual support must prevail. The leader must manage human differences in such a way that commonality of purpose is achieved without suppression of individuality. Personal identification of each team member with common objectives and group commitment to agreed results allow for resolving differences without creating conflict. Research carried out by Miller has shown that, generally, personality types are not identified and teaming does not take place in accordance with matching personalities to maintain a reasonable level of compatibility.

Recently, in Australia two events have occurred which require the employing authorities to set up a different, selection process for the hiring of teachers. While it may be stated that the non-government sector has been selecting teachers for employment after a training period since their establishment, the supply which is running ahead of demand still requires considerable administrative attention. The second event making an impact is pre-service training, which is now carried out in autonomous universities and colleges. Until a few years ago the "bonding" system operated. Prospective students were selected, attended programmes of teacher training and provided that the student passed there was guarantee of employment by State Departments of Education of those students who were 'bonded' (a contractual arrangement between the State and the student – the student was paid an allowance but agreed on graduation to serve the State for 2 to 4 years depending on the length of the programme; in return the student was guaranteed employment by the State).

The present students pursuing education as a career enter programmes 'at risk' which means an application of caveat emptor – on farming employment. Australia now has followed the pattern of other Western nations in this respect.

If one is to consider the criteria for selection one finds that there is a dearth of reliable instruments and measures which may determine the potentiality of success in teaching. Certainly, it has to be known what types of individuals, skills and attitudes are required. The next point to consider is that if there were appropriate measures when should they be applied?

There are also deficiencies in the procedures and application of present devices used for the promotional of personnel. Nowhere is this more critical than in the promotion of classroom teachers to administrative positions. It has long been a fallaciously held contention that the successful classroom practitioner would likewise become a successful administrator. Programmes and courses in educational administration are only of comparative recent origin in Australia. The University of New England at

Armidale entered into this area in the late sixties. In the last decade several universities and advanced colleges of education have cater for the administrator. At present, unlike the U.S.A. and Canada, there are no prerequisites for promotion of having first obtained specific training in educational administrative programs.

With these particular needs in mind we became interested in searching for measures which might be appropriate. In a changing social climate which is moving away from the bureaucratic-authoritarian type approach to a more collegial type of decision making process coupled with attempts to weld together, more harmoniously, the school and its community, there is a need to know more of the "ideal" type personality (if this can be known) that is likely to be appropriate in the organizational setting expected (if not demanded) at this period of time, assuming, of course, that the trend is likely to continue.

Kreml's Authoritarian Personality instrument was used to measure the degree of anti-authoritarian attitude prevailing among grade 12 students in two Brisbane private boys' schools. One school was predominantly a boarding school (with some day students) while the other was a non-boarding school catering only for day students. The results of the study indicated clearly that students who were boarders were pronouncedly more anti-authoritarian than day students, and that the students in the school with boarders had a marked anti-authoritarian attitude than had the day school. Conclusions that may be drawn from this are that students who are under authority continuously are less likely to be supportive of authority, while those students who return to their homes at the end of the day's lessons are not so heavily concerned about the impact of authoritarianism in the school situation because there is escape from it. It could well be that there is likely to be tolerance for authority knowing that one can endure authoritarianism providing that it does not engulf us.

It would not require much imagination to assume what the results might show if the same instruments were given to inmates of prisons, boys' homes, juvenile institutes for the wayward and other institutes where surveillance of the individual to authority is continuous. Although it is recognized that other variables have to be considered, it still remains that authoritarianism is likely to have a deleterious effect on those who have to endure it.

The above research then led us to explore possibilities of developing an instrument that might measure the construct personality of individuals which could be applied to a variety of situations in order to determine the appropriateness of appointment of an individual to an administrative position where leadership is a key factor.

Supplement to Leadership Desirability Scale

THE 55-ITEM L.D.S. PRETEST

Given below are 55 actions that a principal may take which would directly effect principal-staff relations.

Please CIRCLE the letter(s) on the right indicating how desirable – in general – you see each of the actions, according to the following key : HD — highly desirable, D — desirable, N — neither desirable nor undesirable, U — undesirable, HU — highly undesirable.

In your opinion, how desirable is it that, in general, a principal should:

1. Refuse to concede a point when staff disagree with him
2. Do personal favours for staff members
3. Speak in a manner not to be questioned
4. Always ask for a little more than he knows staff can achieve
5. Help staff with their personal problems
6. Stand by his staff, even when it makes him unpopular
7. Insist that things be done his way
8. Reject suggestions for change
9. Impose duties on staff without consultation with them
10. Resist changes in the way of doing things
11. Refuse to explain his actions
12. Act without consulting staff
13. Back up the actions of his staff
14. Accept new ideas slowly
15. Treat all staff as his equal
16. Make criticisms of specific acts, rather than specific staff members
17. Be willing to make changes
18. Put suggestions made by staff into action
19. Seek the backing of his staff before progressing with important matters

20. Bend to the wishes of his staff
21. Expect staff to work outside school hours for the benefit of the school
22. Experiment with new ideas and techniques
23. Rule with an iron hand
24. Criticize poor work by staff members
25. Ensure that directives are fully explained
26. Praise staff members for doing their job well
27. Wait for staff to push new ideas before he does
28. Assign staff members to particular tasks
29. Expect staff to always put the school first
30. Insist that directives handed down to him by a higher authority be followed to the letter by staff
31. Offer new approaches to problems encountered by staff
32. Place the efficient running of the school above the welfare of his staff
33. Insist on being informed of all decisions made by staff
34. Allow staff to do their work the way they think best
35. Stress the importance of high morale among staff
36. "Ride" staff members who make mistakes
37. Emphasize the meeting of deadlines
38. Insist that staff follow standard ways of doing things in every detail
39. Conduct regular staff meetings
40. See to it that staff are working to capacity
41. Take the initiative in getting staff to try out new ideas
42. Be active in educational activities outside the school
43. Be active in the public life of the community
44. Find time for personal study
45. Take tea or coffee in the staffroom at morning break
46. Praise staff members for taking initiatives
47. When changes are necessary, only consult senior staff
48. Consult all staff when changes are necessary
49. Criticize a staff member in front of others
50. Be easily approached by staff
51. Be friendly to staff
52. Take the time to speak informally with staff
53. Attempt to speak informally with as many students as possible
54. Encourage staff to join professional bodies
55. Encourage staff to undertake personal study

DISTRIBUTION ANALYSIS—55-ITEM PRETEST

ITEM	1*st QUARTILE -MEAN-*	4*th QUARTILE -MEAN-*	*t-SCORE*
1	3.34	5.00	7.91*
2	1.71	3.76	10.46*
3	3.53	5.00	0.79
4	1.62	4.14	18.86*
5	1.00	3.19	24.95*
6	1.89	3.11	1.09
7	3.16	4.89	1.71
8	3.92	5.00	1.41
9	4.12	5.00	0.39
10	3.09	5.00	2.00
11	3.74	5.00	1.01
12	3.00	4.88	1.32
13	1.39	2.67	0.83
14	1.90	3.95	16.14*
15	1.34	4.10	22.24*
16	1.28	2.36	0.93
17	1.19	3.15	1.77
18	1.69	2.57	0.75
19	1.00	2.49	0.59
20	2.00	4.38	21.93*
21	1.95	4.52	21.18*
22	2.11	3.82	2.24
23	3.35	5.00	1.17
24	1.81	3.52	8.17*
25	1.00	1.77	0.19
26	1.00	1.49	0.07
27	3.00	4.38	8.55*
28	1.34	3.00	9.60*
29	2.93	3.71	1.89
30	1.95	4.10	26.42*
31	1.37	3.04	1.39
32	2.52	4.62	13.45*
33	1.71	3.83	2.17
34	1.29	3.31	2.07
35	1.11	2.31	0.88
36	3.75	5.00	1.90
37	1.91	3.13	1.07

ITEM	*1st QUARTILE -MEAN-*	*4th QUARTILE -MEAN-*	*t-SCORE*
38	2.22	3.47	1.65
39	2.03	3.97	1.50
40	2.04	3.52	1.49
41	1.93	3.00	1.68
42	1.44	3.51	1.42
43	2.17	3.53	2.00
44	2.51	3.99	1.95
45	2.03	4.10	2.06
46	1.00	2.86	1.13
47	3.10	5.00	8.36*
48	1.00	2.36	1.31
49	4.75	5.00	0.13
50	1.00	1.96	0.24
51	1.00	2.31	0.51
52	1.00	2.66	0.74
53	1.00	1.68	0.17
54	1.99	3.07	1.75
55	2.01	3.96	2.31

---

* t)2.34 is significant at the .01 level.

ITEMS ON FLEISHMAN'S LEADERSHIP OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Refuse to compromise a point.
2. Do personal favours for people in the workgroup.
3. Speak in a manner not to be questioned.
4. Ask for more than members of the workgroup can get done.
5. Help people in the work group with their personal problems.
6. Stand up for those in the workgroup under you, even though it makes you unpopular.
7. Insist that everything be done your way.
8. Reject suggestions for change.
9. Change the duties of people in the workgroup without first talking it over with them.
10. Resist changes in ways of doing things.
11. Refuse to explain your actions.
12. Act without consulting the workgroup.

13. Back up what people under you do.
14. Be slow to accept new ideas.
15. Treat all people in the work group as your equal.
16. Criticize a specific act rather than a particular member of the workgroup.
17. Be willing to make changes.
18. Put suggestions made by people in the work group into operation.
19. Get the approval of the work group on important matters before going ahead.
20. Give in to others in discussions with your work group.
21. Encourage overtime work.
22. Try out your own new ideas in the work group.
23. Rule with an iron hand.
24. Criticize poor work.
25. Talk about how much should be done.
26. Encourage slow working people in the work group to work harder.
27. Wait for people in the work group to push new ideas.
28. Assign people in the work group to particular tasks.
29. Ask for sacrifices from the men under you for the good of the entire section.
30. Ask that people under you follow to the letter those standard routines handed down to you.
31. Offer new approaches to problems.
32. Put the section's welfare above the welfare of any member in it.
33. Insist that you be informed of decisions made by people in the work group under you.
34. Let others do their work the way they think best.
35. Stress being ahead of competing work groups.
36. "Needle" people in the work group for greater effort.
37. Emphasize meeting of deadlines.
38. Decide in detail what shall be done and how it shall be done by the work group.
39. Meet with the work group at regularly scheduled times.
40. See to it that people in the work group are working to capacity.

KERLINGER'S SCALE OF EDUCATIONAL VALUES

Given below are 20 statements on educational ideas and problems about which we all have beliefs, opinions, and attitudes.

Please CIRCLE the letter(s) on the right indicating how you feel about each statement, according to the following key : SA — strongly agree, A — agree, N — neither agree nor disagree, D — disagree, SD — strongly disagree.

1. The goals of education should be dictated by children's interests and needs, as well as by the larger demands of society.
2. No subject is more important than the personalities of the pupils.
3. Schools of today are neglecting the three R's.
4. The pupil-teacher relationship is the relationship between a child who needs directions, guidance, and control, and a teacher who is an expert supplying direction, guidance, and control.
5. Teachers, like university professors, should have academic freedom – freedom to teach what they think is right and best.
6. The backbone of the school curriculum is subject matter; activities are useful mainly to facilitate the learning of subject matter.
7. Teachers should encourage pupils to study and criticize our own and other economic systems and practices.
8. The traditional moral standards of our children should not just be accepted; they should be examined and tested in solving the present problems of students.
9. Learning is experimental; the child should be taught to test alternatives before accepting any of them.
10. The curriculum consists of subject matter to be learned, and skills to be acquired.
11. The true view of education is so arranging learning that the child gradually builds up a storehouse of knowledge that he can use in the future.
12. One of the big difficulties with modern schools is that discipline is often sacrificed to the interests of children.
13. The curriculum should contain an orderly arrangement of subjects that represent the best of our cultural heritage.
14. Discipline should be governed by long-range interests and well-established standards.

15. Education and educational institutions must be sources of new social ideas; education must be a social program undergoing continual reconstruction.

16. Right from the very first grade, teachers must teach the child at his own level and not at the level of the grade he is in.

17. Children must be allowed more freedom than they usually get in the execution of learning activities.

18. Children need and should have more supervision and discipline than they usually get.

19. Learning is essentially a process of increasing one's store of information about the various fields of knowledge.

20. In a democracy, teachers should help students understand not only the meaning of democracy, but also the meaning of the ideologies of other political systems.

** Items 3, 4, 6, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 18, and 19 are regarded as expressing traditional values and are scored in a reverse direction.

CHRISTIE'S NEW LEFT SCALE

Please CIRCLE the letter(s) on the right indicating how you feel about each statement below, according to the following key : SA — strongly agree, A — agree, N — neither agree nor disagree, D — disagree, SD — strongly disagree.

1. The "Establishment" unfairly controls every aspect of our lives; we can never be free until we are rid of it.

2. There are legitimate channels for reform which must be exhausted before attempting disruption.

3. Australia needs a complete restructuring of its basic institutions.

4. Authorities must be put in an intolerable position so they will be forced to respond with repression and thus show their illegitimacy.

5. Even though institutions have worked well in the past, they must be destroyed if they are not effective now.

6. A problem with most older people is that they have learned to accept society as it is, not as it should be.
7. The streets are a more appropriate medium for change in our society than printing presses.
8. Real participatory democracy should be the basis for a new society.

** Items 2 and 7 are not scored.

THE CALIFORNIA F SCALE

Please CIRCLE the letter(s) on the right indicating how you feel about each statement below, according to the following key : SA — strongly agree, A — agree, N — neither agree nor disagree, D — disagree, SD — strongly disagree.

1. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.
2. A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people.
3. If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off.
4. The businessman and the manufacturer are much more important to society than the artist and the professor.
5. Science has its place, but there are many more important things that can never be understood by the human mind.
6. Young people sometimes get rebellious ideas, but as they grow up they ought to get over them and settle down.
7. What this country needs most, more than laws and political programs, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their faith.
8. No sane, normal, decent person could ever think of hurting a close friend or relative.
9. Nobody ever learned anything really important except through suffering.
10. What the youth needs is strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will to work and fight for family and country.
11. There is hardly anything lower than a person who does not feel a great love, gratitude, and respect for his parents.

12. Most of our social problems would be solved if we could somehow get rid of the immoral, crooked, and feeble-minded people.
13. When a person has a problem or worry, it is best for him not to think about it, but to keep busy with more cheerful things.
14. Every person should have complete faith in some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys without question.
15. Some people are born with an urge to take great risks.
16. People can be divided into two distinct classes: the weak and the strong.
17. Some day it will probably be shown that astrology can explain a lot of things.
18. No weakness or difficulty can hold us back if we have enough willpower.
19. Most people don't realize how much our lives are controlled by plots hatched in secret places.
20. Human nature being what it is, there will always be war and conflict.
21. Familiarity breeds contempt.
22. Nowadays, more and more people are prying into matters that should remain personal and private.
23. An insult to our honour should always be punished.
24. Sex crimes, such as rape and attacks on children, deserve more than mere imprisonment; such criminals ought to be whipped, or worse.
25. Homosexuals are hardly better than criminals and ought to be severely punished.
26. Wars and social troubles may someday be ended by an earthquake or flood that will destroy the whole world.
27. The wild sex life of the old Greeks and Romans was tame compared to some of the goings – on in this country, even in places where people might least expect it.

CHAPTER 4 SAMPLE – RETURN PERCENTAGES

School Type	*Sample*	*Return*	*Percentage*
Pre-school	16	8	50.00
State Primary	221	63	28.51
Church Primary	41	23	56.10
Special	20	7	35.00
State Secondary	155	49	31.61
Catholic Secondary	30	21	70.00
Other-Church Secondary	40	26	65.00
Secondary Grammar	32	27	84.38
TOTAL	555	224	40.36

CHAPTER 4 SAMPLE – RETURN PERCENTAGES BY SEX

School Type	*Male*	*Female*
Preschool	12.5	87.5
State Primary	38.1	61.9
Church Primary	30.4	69.6
Special	28.6	71.4
State Secondary	55.1	44.9
Catholic Secondary	66.7	33.3
Other-Church Secondary	65.4	34.6
Secondary Grammar	77.8	22.2
TOTAL	50.5	49.5

CHAPTER 4 SAMPLE – RETURN FREQUENCIES BY POSITION IN SCHOOL

School Type	*Principal*	*Deputy*	*Other Clas.*	*Teacher*
Pre-school	2	—	—	6
State Primary	7	3	3	50
Church Primary	2	1	1	19
Special	1	1	—	5
State Secondary	5	7	11	26
Catholic Secondary	2	2	2	15
Other-Church Secondary	2	2	5	17
Secondary Grammar	1	1	8	17
TOTAL	22	17	30	155

INTERCORRELATION OF L.D.S. ITEMS

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1	.1836	–.0112	.0881	.0174	.3178	–.0603	.1581
2	.1836	1	.3470	.0215	.3509	.3131	.0838	.3412
3	–.0112	.3470	1	.1929	.2362	.0973	.2607	.2766
4	.0881	.0215	.1929	1	.2417	.0604	.1290	.2399
5	.0174	.3509	.2362	.2417	1	.0064	.1499	.2235
6	.3178	.3131	.0973	.0604	.0064	1	.1395	.2111
7	–.0603	.0838	.2607	.1290	.1499	.1395	1	.3448
8	.1581	.3412	.2766	.2399	.2235	.2111	.3448	1

THE PURPOSE

The objective has been to develop a scale which will allow an initial insight into the possible educational role of the ideological dimension of an hypothesized U configuration model of authoritarian personality. It is important to note that this scale – to be called the Leadership Desirability Scale (L.D.S.) – does not attempt to provide subscale measures of the various dichotomies which define the ideological (or *construct*) continuum. The task ahead is very much developmental, and the initial requirement would seem to be *the construction of a scale which can be easily administered and scored, and which would simply allow the relative ideological predisposition of educators to be identified.* It was arbitrarily decided to aim for a scale of around ten items, which was considered sufficiently long to give a valid measure of relative authoritarian or anti-authoritarian personality, but sufficiently short to allow expendient use of scales measuring other educational dimensions without encountering undue respondent resistance caused by questionnaire length.

As well as aiming to achieve its primary objective –by using the 8-item L.D.S. – sought to validate three specific hypotheses:-

Hypothesis 1. *That the L.D.S. will come closer to explaining the authoritarian personality of educators than will the traditional F scale.*

This hypothesis will be valid *if* personality is indeed better represented by a trichotomized U configuration than by a dichotomized linear configuration. It is suggested that a person's value system is one of the more easily measured aspects of his personality, and that the correlation of both the L.D.S. and F scale with Kerlinger's popular "Scale of Educational Values" should, therefore, cast some meaningful light on this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2. *That the predisposition of educators towards a particular political ideology (as distinct from party support) will show a significant correlation with their L.D.S. score.*

The suggestion being made by this hypothesis is that the L.D.S. may not just be measuring the ideological dimension of an educationally-relevant model of authoritarian personality, but rather the ideological dimension of a much more general model of authoritarian personality. The scale which will be used in the testing of this hypothesis is Richard Christie's "New Lef Scale",

203

developed by this well-known American political psychologist in 1969.

Hypothesis 3. *That the higher levels of the educational hierarchy will be occupied by those of relatively greater authoritarian predisposition.*

This hypothesis has been developed on the assumption that the generally held view of schools as bureaucratic institutions is true. Bureaucracies reflect the authoritarian syndrome, and it would seem at least logically true that those given power in an authoritarian organization would have a personality relatively compatible with the organization.

The essential argument is that a U-configuration model may provide a better understanding of the psychological variable, which in turn may lead to a better understanding of educational phenomena. One of the major implications of the U configuration, for example, is that those who are most ideologically opposed are also those who hold most rigidly, to their ideology, and therefore, might be expected to be the least prepared to accept compromise. If this is so, then perhaps we may have isolated a major reason for much of the seemingly irreconcilable conflict within the educational setting.

METHOD

It is argued that once the U configuration personality continuum has been established (perhaps predominantly by the stylistic dimension), then position on that continuum should be able to be identified by isolating position on the ideological dimension, and ultilizing it as one would the X-coordinate of a graph.

The scale has been constructed on the assumption – developed from the literature – that the construct dimension in education finds clearest expression in desired principal – staff relations. Probably the most useful reference instrument for investigating *desired* administrator – staff relations is Edwin Fleishman's Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (L.O.Q.). Fleishman had been involved in the original Ohio State Leadership Studies which were responsible for the development of the popular Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (L.B.D.Q.), but had come to believe that "no less important than the description of leadership behaviour is the assessment of leadership attitudes". Essentially, his approach was to reword the 110 items belonging to the four major factors of the L.B.D.Q. in the "what should" rather than the "what does" form. Fleishman's pretest revealed that the items derived from two of the factors – "Consideration" and "Initiating Structure" – were responsible for over 83% of the attitude variance. He selected the twenty "best" items from each of these two factors and presented his 40-item L.D.Q. to a very representative sample of 1519 individuals from all sections of industry. (Appendix C shows the 40-item L.D.Q.).

The first step in developing the L.D.S. was to take each of the 40 industry-oriented items of the L.D.Q. and rewrite it in a form relevant to the Australian educational scene. Each of these 40 education-oriented items was then carefully examined to see whether the attitude being tested was readily compatible with one or more of the four hypothesized dichotomies of the contruct dimension. All 40 L.D.Q. – derived items were seen to clearly reflect a major component of the construct dimension, and thus were retained for the L.D.S. pretest. One cannot assume, however, that the 40 most relevant attitudinal items for *industrial* administrator-staff relations encompass all the important aspects of desired principal-staff relations in the school. For this reason, additional items for the L.D.S. were drawn from two other sources: Meredydd Hughes' research report on the role of the innovating school head, and a modified brainwrite conducted by this writer.

Hughes' work was particularly relevant to this thesis because it looked specifically at the *desirability* of innovatory actions by the principal, all of which were likely to have a significant effect on principal-staff relations. A review of the actions isolated by Hughes revealed *five* that were not adequately represented by the 40 items derived for the L.D.S. from Fleishman's L.D.Q., and these were added in unaltered form as items 41-45 of the 55-item pretest (see Appendix A).

The modified brainwrite was conducted with ten respondents from each of five different school types (a State primary, State secondary, Catholic secondary, "Other-Church" secondary, and a secondary Grammar). As the purpose of a brainwrite is merely to elicit items, it is not necessary to weight the sample according to population proportions; however, it is acknowledged that not all primary school types were represented, and that country, special, and pre-schools were not tapped. Nevertheless, it was felt that the major issues should be identified by the sample chosen.

In the brainwrite, each respondent was simply asked to make a list of what he or she saw to be "the most important actions which should be taken by a principal if major change is necessary in a school". The items derived from the brainwrite were then compared to the 45 already derived for the L.D.S. pretest in an effort to isolate any actions not represented. This process resulted in a further ten items (46-55 in Appendix A) being added to the 55-item L.D.S. pretest.

Each of the 15 items which had been added to the L.D.S. pretest as a result of the brainwrite and Hughes' reasearch report was carefully examined to see whether it was adequately reflecting characteristics of the construct dimension. As was the case with the 40 L.D.Q. - derived items, every one of the actions was seen to clearly represent at least one of the construct dichotomies of the authoritarian personality.

If, in the final scale, an item is to be meaningful, then it is necessary for that item to evoke different responses, from persons of different views. For this reason, the sampling, for the 55-item pretest was focused on an attempt to tap as many different types of personalities in as many different types of schools as possible. As one would expect, this did not result in a sample truly representative of the population; however, no universal inferences were being drawn from the pretest, and it is argued that the sample was perfectly valid for the purpose of identifying items which differentiated opinion. Altogether, 64 of the sample of 103 responded to the 55-item pretest.

Each of the pretest items was subjected to a type of item analysis in which a t-score was calculated to test for significant differences between the first and fourth quartile distributions for each item. In order to do this, an arbitrary 1 to 5 weighting was placed on each of the five response categories for the pretest. This method of item analysis was simply a device to indicate whether a particular item was adequately differentiating between persons of different views. Of the original 55 pretest items, only 14 were able to reach a t-score value above the required 2.39 for a .01 significance.

TABLE 1

55-ITEM PRETEST RETURN PERCENTAGES

School Type	*Sample*	*Return*	*Percentage*
Pre-School	10	4	40.0
State Primary	13	13	100.0
Church Primary	10	6	60.0
Special	10	5	50.0
State Secondary	18	11	61.1
Catholic Secondary	12	8	66.7
Other-Church Secondary	15	7	46.7
Secondary Grammar	15	10	66.7
TOTAL	103	64	62.1

TABLE 2

55-ITEM PRETEST RETURN PERCENTAGES BY SEX

School Type	*Male*	*Female*
Pre-school	25.0	75.0
State Primary	38.5	61.5
Church Primary	33.3	66.7
Special	40.0	60.0
State Secondary	63.6	36.4
Catholic Secondary	62.5	37.5
Other-Church Secondary	71.4	28.6
Secondary Grammar	70.0	30.0
TOTAL	53.1	46.9

TABLE 3

RESPONDENTS BY POSITION IN SCHOOL FOR 55-ITEM PRETEST

School Type	*Principal*	*Deputy*	*Other Clas.*	*Teacher*
Pre-school	1	—	—	3
State Primary	2	2	1	8
Church Primary	1	1	1	3
Special	1	—	—	4
State Secondary	2	3	2	4
Catholic Secondary	1	1	1	5
Other-Church Secondary	1	1	2	3
Secondary Grammar	—	1	3	7
TOTAL	9	9	10	37

The 14 items isolated by item analysis were re-numbered and presented as the major pretest in the following form:

"*In your opinion, how desirable is it that, in general, a principal should:-*

1. Do personal favours for staff members
2. Refuse to concede a point when staff disagree with him
3. When changes are necessary, only consult senior staff
4. Always ask for a little more than he knows staff can achieve
5. Help staff with their personal problems
6. Treat all staff as his equal
7. Accept new ideas slowly
8. Bend to the wishes of his staff
9. Place the efficient running of the school above the welfare of his staff
10. Expect staff to work outside school hours for the benefit of the school

11. Criticize poor work by staff members
12. Wait for staff to push new ideas before he does
13. Assign staff members to particular tasks
14. Insist that directives handed down to him by a higher authority are followed to the latter by staff.

The major pretest was distributed to 555 educators, 331 of whom responded. Again, the thrust was not to obtain a sample truly representative of population proportions, but rather to tap as many people in as many subsets of the principal – staff component as possible, so as to allow meaningful analyses to be made. Nevertheless, there was an overriding attempt to maintain relative ratios of the more general categories such as school type and sex. Table 4 lists the return percentages by school type, Table 5 the return percentages by sex, and Table 6 the number of respondents by position in school. The one potentially serious deficiency in the sample is that only 8.2% of the return represents country

TABLE 4

14–ITEM PRETEST RETURN PERCENTAGES

School Type	*Sample*	*Return*	*Percentage*
Pre-school	16	13	81.25
State Primary	221	112	50.68
Church Primary	41	28	68.29
Special	20	12	60.00
State Secondary	155	78	50.32
Catholic Secondary	30	26	86.67
Other-Church Secondary	40	33	82.50
Secondary Grammar	32	29	90.63
TOTAL	555	331	59.64

TABLE 5

14-ITEM PRETEST RETURN PERCENTAGES BY SEX

School Type	*Male*	*Female*
Pre-school	7.7	92.3
State Primary	38.4	61.6
Church Primary	35.7	64.3
Special	33.3	66.7
State Secondary	52.6	47.4
Catholic Secondary	57.7	42.3
Other-Church Secondary	60.6	39.4
Secondary Grammar	72.4	27.6
TOTAL	44.4	55.6

TABLE 6

RESPONDENTS BY POSITION IN SCHOOL FOR 14-ITEM PRETEST

School Type	*Principal*	*Deputy*	*Other Clas.*	*Teacher*
Pre-school	2	—	—	11
State Primary	9	4	7	92
Church Primary	2	1	2	23
Special	1	1	1	9
State Secondary	8	14	16	40
Catholic Secondary	2	3	2	19
Other-Church Secondary	2	2	6	23
Secondary Grammar	1	2	8	18
TOTAL	27	27	42	235

schools. The problem here was one of logistics – this writer being tied to a city-based school. Intuitively, and on the basis of the country responses that were received, one would feel that basic personality traits should be much the same whether an educator is in the city or in the country; yet this assumption undoubtedly needs testing, and would profitably form the basis for future research.

Items 2, 3, 4, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14 were considered to reflect a predisposition towards authoritarian behaviour, and responses to these items were weighted as follows: HD — 4, D — 3, N — 2, U — 1, HU — O. Items 1, 5, 6, and 8 were considered to reflect a predisposition towards anti-authoritarian behaviour, and responses to these items were weighted in a reverse direction as follows: HD — 0, D — 1, N — 2, U — 3, HU — 4. A raw score was then computed for each respondent, ranging from a maximum anti-authoritarian score of "0", through to a maximum authoritarian score of "56". The scores attained by the subjects for each individual item were then correlated (Pearson r) with the total score obtained by the subjects on the whole test in order to ascertain the extent to which each item was measuring what the total test was measuring, i.e. this method of item analysis gives one an indication of the internal consistency of the test. The results of this item analysis are shown in Table 3.7. It was arbitarily decided that only items obtaining correlation values in excess of .40 would be considered for the scale. As a result, six items – numbers 1, 3, 5, 10, 11, and 12 – were removed. This left eight items (numbers 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 13, and 14) which, when correlated against their own total (i.e. the sum of the scores of the eight items), all correlated at the .50 level or better. This analysis of internal consistency is also shown in Table 7.

Before looking further at the final L.D.S., it would seem profitable to briefly speculate on why six items which significantly differentiated opinion failed to do so in a consistent manner. As the questionnaires had been anonymous, it was impossible to seek out people who had taken different points of view on each of the six items and ask them what had motivated their stance; however, some insight was gained by randomly interviewing 27 of the respondents, explaining to them how it was thought each of the six items would score and why, and simply asking them to

TABLE 7

ITEM ANALYSIS – INTERNAL CONSISTENCY

Item Number	*Initial Correlation*	*Final Correlation*
1	.142	
2	.466	.496
3	.370	
4	.483	.622
5	.163	
6	.565	.602
7	.447	.518
8	.503	.539
9	.478	.510
10	.089	
11	.013	
12	–.041	
13	.434	.489
14	.532	.676

Final correlations are based on items 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 13, and 14 only.

give their opinion as to why many people did not respond in the way predicted. It seems highly probable, then, that the explanations set out below provide at least the major reasons for the inconsistent responses to items 1, 3, 5, 10, 11, and 12.

Item 1. *"Do personal favours for staff members"*

Many respondents of generally anti-authoritarian bias saw this as the desirable action of a humanist; however, others of similar bias seemingly saw it as an undesirable prelude to manipulation. If this explanation is correct, the implication must be that educators of similar bias may be dominated by different dimensions of the authoritarian model.

Item 3. *"When changes are necessary, only consult senior staff"*

Apparently, the effectiveness of this item was undermined because some people who disagreed with the statement did so because they felt that *all* staff should be consulted, while others felt that *no* staff should be consulted.

Item 5. *"Help staff with their personal problems"*

In similar vein to Item 1, it appears that this action may be seen by people of similar bias as being either humanistic or paternalistic, depending on which dimensions of the authoritarian personality have greatest effect on their thinking.

Item 10. *"Expect staff to work outside school hours for the benefit of the school"*

It appears that many people of anti-authoritarian bias supported this seemingly authoritarian action because they did not think of "the school" as an *institution*, but rather as an assembly of *students*. Consequently, they saw this item in rather humanistic terms, and responded accordingly.

Item 11. *"Criticize poor work by staff members"*

Apparently, the authoritarian personality does – as predicted – see this as a desirable action. It appears that the inconsistency of response has been generated by those of anti-authoritarian predisposition, some of whom see criticism of an individual as a reinforcement of norms and standards and thus as a very formal action, while others see it as more probably being a low-key action motivated by a desire to help the individual.

Further, it seemed to be important to many respondents whether or not the action occurred in private – a fact not conveyed by the item.

Item 12. *"Wait for staff to push new ideas before he does"*

This item was considered highly suspect even before the major pretest was delivered. It was included, however, because of its exceptionally good t-score on the distribution analysis. As predicted, many people saw this as reflecting the "restraint" dimension and the "If I don't try to change anything, neither will they" approach. However, the initial suspicion that an equal number of people would see this as an attempt to give maximum freedom to staff was also confirmed.

Clearly, then, these six items have failed to adequately differentiate between those of different ideologies, and thus are not acceptable for the Leadership Desirability Scale.

The final form of the L.D.S. is shown in Table 3.8 below. The letter "A" after an item means that it is seen as an authoritarian action; the letters "AA" after an item mean that it is seen as an anti-authoritarian action. These predicted scoring directions were confirmed by the signs of the internal consistency correlations shown in Table .7.

TABLE 8

THE LEADERSHIP DESIRABILITY SCALE

In your opinion, how desirable is it that, in general, a principal should:-

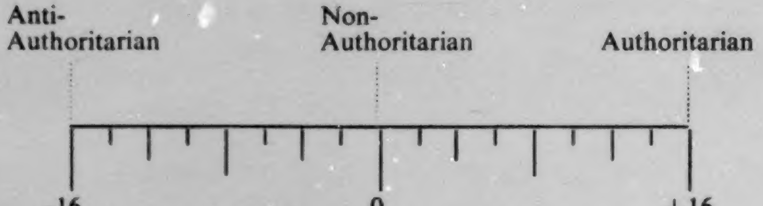
1. Refuse to concede a point when staff disagree with him (A)
2. Always ask for a little more than he knows staff can achieve (A)
3. Treat all staff as his equal (AA)
4. Accept new ideas slowly (A)
5. Bend to the wishes of his staff (AA)
6. Place the efficient running of the school above the welfare of his staff (A)
7. Assign staff members to particular tasks (A)
8. Insist that directives handed down to him by a higher authority are followed to the letter by staff (A)

As with the pretests, L.D.S., respondents are asked to rate each item on a Likert - type scale, with the possible responses being: Hichly Desirable (HD), Desirable (D), Neither desirable nor undesirable (N), Undesirable (U), Highly Undesirable (HU).

Items 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, and 8 (which have an authoritarian bias) are weighted as follows: HD = +2, D = +1, N = O, U = -1, HU = -2. As they have an anti-authoritarian bias, items 3 and 5 are weighted in a reverse direction as follows: HD = -2, D = -1, N = O, U = +1, HU = +2. This gives the L.D.S. a range extending from a maximum anti-authoritarian score of -16 through to a maximum authoritarian score of +16. A score of O would indicate maximum non-authoritarian predisposition. This continuum is illustrated in Figure 6.

FIGURE 6

THE L.D.S. CONTINUUM



A Kuder – Richardson estimate of internal – consistency reliability (K-R 21) was performed on the 8-item test, and a value of 64 obtained. If one remembers that the number of test items was very small, and that there were five scoring options offered by the Likert scale for each item, then this value may be considered to be quite satisfactory. (An intercorrelation of test items appears in Appendix K).

Although there was no deliberate attempt to have each of the four hypothesized dichotomies which define the construct dimension represented on the final scale, it is interesting to note that *each* of the dichotomies does in fact have at least one scale item which clearly reflects its characteristics. For example, Item 4 ("Accept new ideas slowly") clearly belongs to the "Impulsiveness *vs* Restraint" dichotomy; when viewed in the reverse sense, Item 3 ("Treat all staff as his equal") conveys the authoritarian predisposition for stratified, hierarchical authority relationships which lies at the heart of the "Power *vs* Anti-Power" dichotomy; the principal tenets of the "Order *vs* Anti-Order" dichotomy – emphasis on routine, the imposition of closely defined norms and standards, and the recognition of the "proper" place of people and things – are clearly discernible in Item 8 ("Insist that directives handed down to him by a higher authority are followed to the letter by staff"); and the emphasis on visible, material things rather than the subjective worth and needs of people – the essential discriminating trait of the "Introspection *vs* Anti-Introspection" dichotomy – finds clear expression in Item 6 ("Place the efficient running of the school above the welfare of his staff"). It is possible, then, that all four dichotomies of the ideological continuum may act as important variables in the educational setting. A worthwhile area for future research would be the isolation of the relative strengths of each of these dichotomies.

RESULTS

As well as completing the 14-item pretest, respondents were asked to provide several pieces of biographic data, and to complete three other scales (which were simply termed Form 8, Focm C, and Form D so that their true titles would not prejudice responses). The biographic data requested was:

(1) Sex.

(2) Age (under 25 ; 25 - 30; 31 - 40; 41 - 50 ; over 50)

(3) Teaching experience (1 year ; 2 years ; 3 years ; 3 - 5 years ; 6 - 10 years ; 11 - 20 years; over 20 years)

(4) Marital status (single ; married ; divorced ; widowed)

(5) General school type (pre-school ; primary ; secondary ; special)

(6) Controlling body (State ; Catholic ; Other-Church ; Non-denominational Grammar ; Other)

(7) School location (city ; provincial ; country)

(8) Position in school (principal ; deputy ; senior mistress ; subject master ; teacher ; other)

(9) Highest level of education. (Respondents were asked to *state* this variable because of the large possible number of responses.)

Form 8 was F.N. Kerlinger's well-established 20-item "Scale of Educational Values" (reproduced in Appendix D) which places educators on a continuum ranging from –40 (extremely conservative) to +40 (extremely progressive). Form C was the most popular form of the F scales, and is generally known as the "California F Scale". This 27-item test ostensibly places respondents on a continuum ranging from O (extremely non-authoritarian) to +108 (extremely authoritarian), and is reproduced in Appendix F. Form D was Richard Christie's 8-item "New-Left Scale", developed in 1969 to measure proclivity towards a particular political ideology (not necessarily towards a particular political party). Only six of the eight items are scored, and this results in a continuum ranging from a maximum "Left" score of +12 through to a maximum

"Right" score of −12. The "New-Left Scale" is reproduced in Appendix E.

Each respondent's score on the 8-item L.D.S.* was correlated against his or her age, teaching experience, and qualifications, as well as against the raw score attained on each of the F scale, Scale of Educational Values, and New-Left Scale (political ideology). These correlations are shown in Table 4.1. Further, each of these variables was correlated against the F scale values. These correlations are shown in Table 4.2.

TABLE 9

CORRELATIONS WITH LEADERSHIP DESIRABILITY SCALE

Variables	*Correlation*
F Scale	.094
Educational values	−.224**
Political ideology	−.154*
Teaching qualifications	−.153*
Teaching experience	.045
Age	.102

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

TABLE 10

CORRELATIONS WITH F SCALE

Variables	*Correlation*
Leadership Desirability Scale	.094
Educational values	−.064
Political ideology	−.070
Teaching qualifications	−.047
Teaching experience	.037
Age	.026

None of the correlations reached the .05 level of significance.

---

*Only 224 of the 331 respondents who returned a completed 14-item L.D.S. pretest completed the other data reported in this chapter. The characteristics of these 224 respondents are shown in Appendices G, H, and K.

Correlations in Tables 9 and 10 were compared by using Fisher's test for significant differences between two correlation coefficients. The results of this process are shown in Table 4.3.

TABLE 10

FISHER'S TEST - L.D.S. *vs* F SCALE

Variable	*z*	*oc*
Educational values	2.437	.0148
Political ideology	1.263	.2066
Qualifications	1.590	.1118
Experience	0.119	.9053
Age	1.129	.2589

The extremes of the L.D.S. were isolated by taking the 1st quartile of the 1st quartile and the 4th quartile of the 4th quartile of the L.D.S. distribution (i.e. approximately the top and bottom 6%). Correlations were then made with the Scale of Educational Values and the New-Left Scale. The responses isolated are shown in Table 11, and the correlations made in Table 12 .

TABLE 11

SCALE RESPONSES FOR THE 6% EXTREMES OF THE L.D.S.

LDS	*SEV*	*NLS*	*FS*	*LDS*	*SEV*	*NLS*	*FS*
+12	-36	-11	83	-10	+26	+ 9	75
11	-32	-10	63	-10	23	8	40
10	-30	- 9	59	- 9	20	10	60
10	-27	- 8	71	- 9	19	9	64
10	-24	- 8	61	- 9	1	1	42
9	-29	- 4	72	- 8	16	8	64
9	- 5	- 9	49	- 8	15	7	73
8	-30	-10	58	- 8	- 6	- 2	59
8	-27	- 8	41	- 7	+10	+ 6	38
8	-16	- 7	45	- 6	14	6	61
8	-26	- 2	52	- 6	13	6	55
7	-25	- 8	47	- 6	12	5	44
7	-21	- 5	44	- 6	- 2	- 1	51
7	- 9	- 5	45				

LDS — Leadership Desirability Scale; SEV — Scale of Educational Values; NLS — New Left Scale; FS — F scale.

TABLE 12

SCALE CORRELATIONS FOR THE L.D.S. EXTREMES

Variable	*L.D.S.*	*F Scale*
Educational Values	–.924	–.086
Political Ideology	–.921	–.048
r>.554 is significant at the .001 level		

The correlation values for the L.D.S. extremes were also subjected to Fisher's test to see if there were any significant differences in the correlations made. The results of this process are shown in Table 13.

TABLE 13

FISHER'S TEST – L.D.S. *vs* F SCALE – L.D.S. EXTREMES

Variable	*z*	*oc*
Educational Values	7.534	.0000
Political Ideology	7.554	.0000

Table 14 below shows the t-score analysis by sex for responses to the 8-item L.D.S.. No attempt has been made at this stage to control for a possible confounding effect, and it is suggested that this may be a useful area for future research.

TABLE 14

t-TEST – SEX

	Mean	*Standard Deviation*	*t-score*
Male	1.32	3.93	
Female	0.43	3.82	
TOTAL	0.87	3.88	1.113
t>1.65 is significant at the .05 level			

Relationships between each of the remaining five variables (marital status; general school type; controlling body; school location; and position in school) were individually tested by an Analysis of Variance. The L.D.S. scores are tested against marital status in Table 15, general school type in Table 16, controlling body in Table 17, school location in Table 18, and position in school in Table 15.

TABLE 15

ANALYSIS OF DATA – MARITAL STATUS

Marital Status	*Mean*	*Standard Deviation*
Single	0.23	3.45
Married	0.99	4.09
Divorced	1.80	0.77
Widowed	1.31	2.55
ANOVA F ration — 1.93 which is not significant		

TABLE 16

ANALYSIS OF DATA – GENERAL SCHOOL TYPE

School Type	*Mean*	*Standard Deviation*
Preschool	0.97	1.53
Primary	1.86	2.91
Secondary	–0.38	4.00
Special	1.30	2.45
ANOVA F ratio — 1.42 which is not significant		

TABLE 17

ANALYSIS OF DATA – CONTROLLING BODY

Controlling Body	*Mean*	*Standard Deviation*
State	1.27	3.79
Catholic	0.20	2.16
Other-Church	1.30	4.08
Non-denominational Grammar	0.47	4.21
ANOVA F ratio — 1.08 which is not significant		

TABLE 18

ANALYSIS OF DATA – SCHOOL LOCATION

School Location	*Mean*	*Standard Deviation*
City	0.83	3.92
Provincial	0.79	2.94
Country	1.01	3.78
ANOVA F ratio — 0.27 which is not significant		

TABLE 19

ANALYSIS OF DATA – POSITION IN SCHOOL

Position Held	*Mean*	*Standard Deviation*
Principal	4.19	2.07
Deputy	3.80	2.79
Senior mistress	1.71	3.31
Subj. Master/Inf. Mistress	0.83	4.13
Teacher	0.89	3.87
ANOVA F ratio — 3.28 which is significant at the .05 level		

Only one of the ANOVA relationships – position in school – proved significant. The protected t – test for this variable is shown in Table 20.

TABLE 20

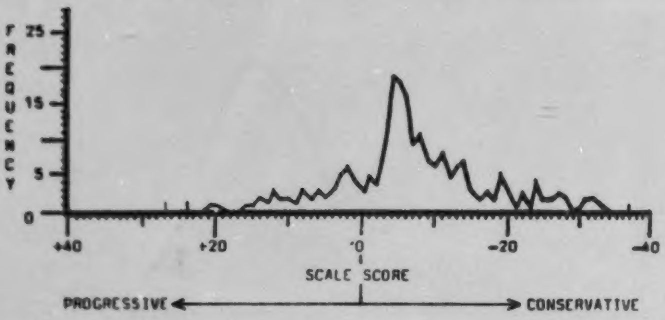
PROTECTED t–TEST – POSITION IN SCHOOL

Comparison Tested	*t-score*
Principal-Deputy	0.13
Principal-Senior Mistress	1.74*
Principal-Subj. Master/Inf. Mistress	2.33*
Principal-Teacher	2.07*
Deputy-Senior Mistress	1.49
Deputy-Subj. Master/Inf. Mistress	2.12*
Deputy-Teacher	1.98*
Senior Mistress-Subj. Master/Inf. Mistress	1.19
Senior Mistress-Teacher	0.87
Subj. Master/Inf. Mistress-Teacher	0.36
* Significant at the .05 level	

In order to provide an overall picture of how the sample was distributed with respect to educational values, political ideology, and L.D.S. responses, frequency graphs have been constructed, and are shown in Figures 7-9 below.

FIGURE 7

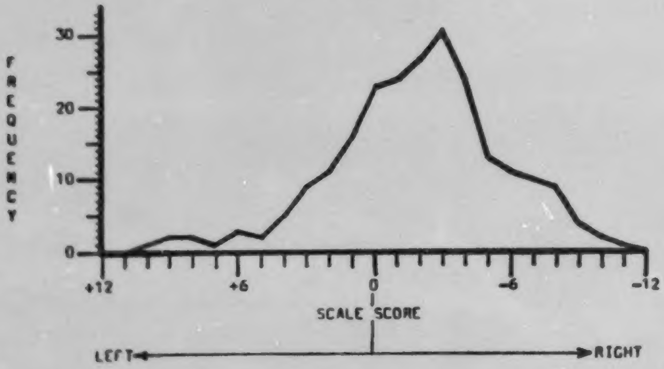
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES FOR KERLINGER'S SCALE OF EDUCATIONAL VALUES



Median — -6
Mean — -4.56
Standard Deviation — 13.14

FIGURE 8

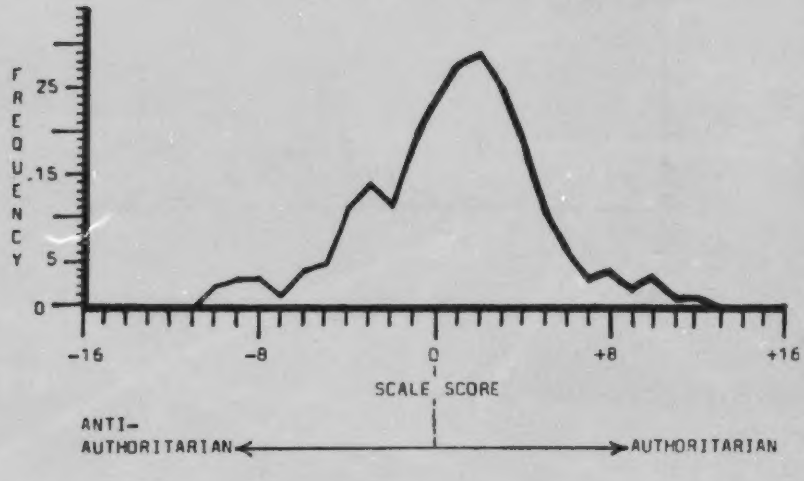
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES FOR NEW-LEFT SCALE (POLITICAL IDEOLOGY)



Median — -2, Mean — -1.091 Standard Deviation — 3.75

FIGURE 9

DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES FOR LEADERSHIP DESIRABILITY SCALE



Mean — 0.87
Median — 2
Standard Deviation — 3.88

DISCUSSION

HYPOTHESES:

The validity of each of those hypotheses will now be examined in the light of the research findings.

Hypothesis One: *"That the L.D.S. will come closer to expalining the authoritarian personality of educators than will the traditional F scale".* A complete investigation of this hypothesis would be a very complex process indeed, and certainly lies beyond the scope of this thesis. It is argued, however, that one's value system is *one* of the expressions of personality. For this reason, it was considered that the correlation of the L.D.S. and the F scale with Kerlinger's Scale of Educational Values might cast at least *some* meaningful light on the hypothesis. Correlation of the L.D.S. with the Scale of Educational Values produced a value of –.224 (which is statistically significant at the .01 level), while correlation of the F scale with the Scale of Educational Values produced a value of –.064 (which fails to reach the .1 level of significance). Comparison of these two correlation values by Fisher's test (see Table 4.3) showed the difference to be significant at the .015 level. This means that it *is* valid to say that the L.D.S. comes closer than the F scale to explaining the educational values held by educators (and thus *perhaps* the personality of educators). However, the L.D.S. is still only explaining approximately 5% of the variation in educational values, and thus we can have little confidence in its ability as a general predictor of either educational values or – in particular – personality.

A somewhat different picture emerges when we examine the situation at the L.D.S. extremes, where the correlation values of the L.D.S. and the F scale with the scale of educational values are –.924 and –.086 respectively. Fisher's test (see Table 4.6) reveals that the difference between these two values is highly significant (.0000 level), indicating that the L.D.S. is – at the extremes – a much better predictor of educational values than is the F scale. Of much more importance, however, is that at the extremes, the L.D.S. is accounting for over 85% of the variation in educational values.

Although, then, the relationship between ideology and values is a very tenuous one for those "in the middle" of the ideological continuum, it is apparently a very strong one for those at the ideological poles. One may tentatively suggest, therefore, that the educational values held by educators are, in fact, best represented by a U configuration – one that is well-defined at the poles, but very ill-defined in its middle regions. If this is so, then *perhaps* there is the possibility that authoritarian personality is also similarly defined. Certainly, the results have given sufficient incentive for further investigation.

Hypothesis Two: *"That the predisposition of educators towards a particular political ideology (as distinct from party support) will show a significant correlation with their L.D.S. score".* Correlation of the L.D.S. with the New Left Scale achieved a value of only –.154. Although this value is statistically significant at the .05 level, it indicates that only a little more than 2% of the variation in political ideology can be accounted for by the attitudes measured by the L.D.S.. In fact, Fisher's test (see Table 4.3) suggests that the L.D.S. is no better than the F scale in explaining political ideology. The implication would seem to be that the L.D.S. is *not* – in general – measuring the ideological dimension of a much more general model of authoritarian personality than the one applicable to the educational setting.

Once again, however, a totally different picture is presented by the L.D.S. extremes which provide a correlation value of –.921 with the New Lef Scale, as opposed to the F scale correlation of –.048. This means that, at the extremes, the L.D.S. is able to account for almost 85% of the variation in political values, while the F scale is almost powerless to account for any of the variation. This fact is strongly supported by Fisher's test (see Table 4.6) which produced an extremely high z value of 7.554 (significant at the .0000 level).

As with the previous hypothesis, it would seem that a U configuration model does tend to explain behaviour at the extremes, but does not appear to be particularly valid for those in the middle regions of the ideological continuum.

Hypothesis Three: *"That the higher levels of the educational hierarchy will be occupied by those of relatively greater authoritarian predisposition".* Table 4.12 shows that significant differences in relative authoritarian or anti-authoritarian predisposition are linked to the different positions held by educators in the school. Table 4.13 indicates that principals as a group are significantly more ideologically authoritarian than senior mistresses, subject masters, infant mistresses, and classroom teachers, while deputies are significantly more ideologically authoritarian than subject masters, infant mistresses, and classroom teachers. Basically, these findings can be interpreted as saying that those in general administration positions in the school do, as a group, possess more authoritarian traits than those in pedagogical-related positions. Besides indicating that Hypothesis Three is correct, this finding would seem to raise many questions about the promotion system operating in our schools.

GENERAL DISCUSSION:

Some elementary statistics were collected for the remaining pieces of biographic data requested from the respondents. No attempt has been made at this stage (in a thesis of this size) to examine the effect of the interaction of the variables on one another (e.g. the possible confounding effect for the sex variable). Rather, it is hoped that the results may allow some superficial speculation to be made about the general characteristics of the ideological dimension in the educational setting – speculation that may identify interesting areas for future research.

Examination of Table 4.1 shows that very low correlations exist between L.D.S. score and level of education, teaching experience, and age (-.153, .045, and .012 respectively). The correlation value for level of education is, in fact, statistically significant at the .05 level; however, it is only accounting for some 2% of the L.D.S. variation, and must, therefore, be considered insignificant. (Even at the extremes, level of education accounts for less than 5% of the variation.). Further, reference to the F ratios in Tables 4.8, 4.9, 4.10, and 4.11 will show that the L.D.S. score appears independent of marital status, general school type, controlling body, or school location, while Table 4.7 reveals that there is no significant difference in L.D.S. scores for males or females. (The reader is reminded that each of these relationships have been measured independently, and that interaction effects may produce a somewhat different picture). If these results are valid, then the inference would seem to be that educational ideology is relatively unaffected by environmental factors, and is therefore fairly static in nature. This would be compatible with the results obtained for political ideology by Eysenck (1954), Rokeach (1960), Kirscht and Dillehay (1967), and Kreml (1977).

Figures 4.1 – 4.3 suggest that teachers as a group are failry "middle of the road" with – if anything – a slightly conservative, right-wing, authoritarian predisposition. It would be meaningful to see whether the distribution of these three characteristics is in fact representative of their distribution in the community generally, for it can be legitimately argued that the type of education offered is at least partially dependent on the personality of the teachers, and that the type of personality attracted to teaching will be at least partially dependent on the type of psychological stimuli offered by the educational system.

Bibliography

Adorno, T.W.; Frenkel-Brunswik, E.; Levinson, D.J.; Sanford, R.N.; *The Authoritarian Personality* New York, Harper, 1950.

Anderson, D.P. *Organizational Climate of Elementary Schools* Minneapolis: Educational Research and Development Council of the Twin Cities Metropolitan Area Inc., 1964.

Anderson, R.H. *Teaching in a Changing World* New York: Harcourt Brace, 1966.

Bakke, E.W. and Argyris, C. *Organizational Structure and Dynamics* New Haven: Labor and Management Centre, Yale University, 1954.

Barker, E.N. "Authoritarianism of the Political Right, Centre, and Left." *Journal of Social Issues* 19:63–74, 1963.

Bay, C. *The Structure of Freedom* New York: Athenium, 1968.

Bottomore, T.B.(ad) *Karl Marx, Early Writings* New York:Mc-Grow-Hill 1963.

Brickell, H.M. *Organizing New York State for Educational Change* New York: State Education Department, 1961.

Brown, A.F. and House, J.H. "The Organizational Component in Education" *Review of Educational Research* 37:399–416 Oct. 1967.

Brown, R. *Social Psychology* New York:Free Press, 1965.

Burke, E. *Reflections on the Revolution in France* New York: Bobbs-Merrill, 1955.

Carlson, R.O. *Adoption of Educational Innovations* Eugene, Oregon: The Centre for Advanced Study of Educational Administration, Univ. of Oregon, 1965.

Christie, R. and Jahoda, M. (eds) *Studies in the Scope and Method of "The Authoritarian Personality"* Glencoe: Free Press, 1954.

Cleaveland, B. "A Letter to undergraduates" in Jacobs, P. and Landau, S. *The New Radicals* New York: Vintage Books, 1966.

Cornell, F.G. "Socially Perceptive Administration" *Phi Delta Kappa* 36, 1955.

Demeter, L.H. "Accelerating the Local Use of improved Educational Practices in School Systems" Unpublished doctoral thesis, Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1951.

Eysenck, H.J. *The Psychology of Politics* London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1954.

Eysenck, H.J. *Crime and Personality* Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1964.

Eysenck, H.J. *The Biological Basis of Personality* Springfield: Charles C. Thomas, 1967.

Fiedler, F.E. *A theory of Leadership Effectiveness* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Fleishman, E.A. "The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire" in Stogdill, R. and Coons, A.E. (eds.) *Leader Behaviour: Its Description and Measurement* Columbus, O.: The Ohio State University Press, 1957.

Flizak, C.W. "Organizational Structure of Schools and Its Relationship to Teachers' Psychological, Sociological, and Educational Role Orientation" *ERIC Reproduction*, Mich., 1967.

Fromm, E. *Escape From Freedom* New York: Holt, 1947.

Fromm, E. *The Sane Society* New York:Rinehart, 1955.

Fromm, E. *Marx's Concept of Man* New York:Unger, 1961.

Garland, P. and O'Reilly, R.R. "The Effect of Leader-Member Interaction on Organizational Effectiveness" *Educational Administration Quarterly* 12:9–30, Fall 1976.

Getzels, J.W. "Administration as a Social Process" in Halpin, A.W. (ed) *Administrative Theory in Education* Chicago:Midwest Administration Centre, Univ of Chicago, 1958.

Getzels, J.W. and Thelen, H.A. "The Classroom Group as a Unique Social System". in Henry, N.B. (ed) *The Dynamics of Instructional Groups: Sociopsychological Aspects of Teaching and Learning* N.S.S.E. Yearbook LIX, Part II Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, 1960.

Gouldner, A.W. *Patterns of Industrial Bureaucracy* Glencoe:Free Press, 1954.

Gross, N. and Herriott, R.E. *Staff Leadership in Public Schools: A Sociological Inquiry* New York: Wiley, 1965.

Gross, N., Giacquinta, J.B., and Bernstein, M. *Implementing Organizational Innovations* New York: Basic Books, 1971.

Gulutsan, M. "Teacher's Relations to Procedures in Teaching Human Relations" *Alberta Journal of Educational Research* 11:54–65, March, 1965.

Halpin, A.W. and Croft, D.B. *The Organizational Climate of Schools* Chicago: Midwest Administration Centre, Univ. of Chicago, 1963.

Halpin, A.W. *Theory and Research in Administration* New York:Macmillan, 1966.

Havelock, R.G. "Dissemination and Translation Roles" in Eidell, T.L. and Kitchell, J.M. (eds). *Knowledge Production and Utilization in Educational Administration* Centre for Advanced Study of Educational Administration Eugene, O.: University of Oregon, 1968.

Helsel, A.R. "Personality and Pupil Control Behaviour" *The Journal of Educational Administration* 14:79–86, May, 1976.

Hemphill, J.K. and Coons, A.E. "Development of the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire" in Stoqdill, R.M. and Coons, A.E. (eds.) *Leader Behaviour: Its Description and Measurement* Columbus, O.: The Ohio State University Press, 1957.

Hoyle, E. "Planned Organizational Change in Education" *Research in Education* 3:1–22, 1970.

Hughes, M. "The Innovating School Head:Autocratic Initiator or Catalyst of Cooperation" *ACEA Bulletin* 5:1–12, June, 1976.

Jackson, P.W. *Life in Classrooms* New York:Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1968.

Jacobs, P. and Landau, S. *The New Radicals* New York:Vintage Books, 1966.

James, W. *Pragmatism* New York:Longmans, 1921.

Joyce, B., Lamb, H., and Sibol, J. "Conceptual Development and Information Processing:A Study of Teachers" *Journal of Educational Research* 59:219–222, January, 1966.

Kirk, R. *Enemies of the Permanent Things* New Rochelle:Arlington, 1969.

Kirk, R. "The Problem of the New Order" in Buckley, W.F. *Did You Ever See A Dream Walking?* New York:Bobbs-Merrill, 1970.

Kirscht, J.P. and Dillehay, R.C. *Dimensions of Authoritarianism:A Review of Research and Theory* Lexington:Univ. of Kentucky Press, 1967.

Kreml, W.P. *The Anti-Authoritarian Personality* New York:Pergamon, 1977.

LeFevre, C. "Teacher Characteristics and Careers" *Review of Educational Research* 37:433–447, Oct. 1967.

MacKay, D.A. "Should Schools Be Bureaucratic?" *Canadian Administrator* 4:5–8, November, 1964.

Marcuse, H. *Eros and Civilization* New York:Vintage Books, 1955.

Merton, R.K. "The Unanticipated Consequences of Purposive Social Action" *American Sociological Review* 1:894–904, 1936.

Meyer, F.S. "The Recrudescent American Conservatism" in Buckley, W.F. *Did You Ever See A Dream Walking?* New York:Bobbs–Merrill, 1970.

Miles, M.B.(ed.) *Innovation in Education* New York:Teachers' College Press, 1964.

Miller, L.R. "Professionalization and Militancy" *Ed*370 *Study Guide* No. 11, Univ. of Queensland, 1976. (Roneo)

Miller, L.R. "Administration and Bureaucracy" *Ed*370 *supplement*, Univ. of Queensland, 1976. (Roneo)

Owens, R.G. *Organizational Behaviour in Schools* New Jersey:Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Plaxton, R. "Principal Personality and School Organizational Climate" *CSA Bulletin* 4:21–35, July, 1965.

Punch, K.F. "Bureaucratic Structure in Schools and Its Relationship to Leader Behaviour" Doctoral Thesis, Univ. of Toronto, 1967.

Punch, K.F. "The Study of Bureaucracy in Schools" *Australian Journal of Education* 16, 3 Oct., 1972.

Putnam, R. "Studying Elite Culture:The Case for Ideology" *APSR* 65:651–681, 1961.

Robinson, N. "Teacher Professionalism and Bureaucracy in School Organizations" *Canadian Education and Research Digest* 7:29–46, March, 1967.

Rogers, E.M. "What are Innovations Like?" in Carlson, R.O. et al. *Change Processes in the Public Schools* Eugene, Ore.:The Centre for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, Univ. of Oregon, 1965.

Rokeach, M. *The Open and Closed Mind* New York:Basic Books, 1960.

Roszak, T. *The Making of a Counter Culture* New York:Doubleday, 1968.

Sanford, N. "The Approach of the Authoritarian Personality" in McCary, J.L.(ed.) *Psycholoy of Personality:Six Modern Approaches* New York:Pergamon, 1977.

Satre Jean-Paul "Existentialism" in Hamalian, L. and Karl, F.J.(eds.) *The Radical Vision,* New York:Thomas Y.Crowell, 1970.

Schmuck, R. A. and Miles, M. B. (eds.) *Organization Development in Schools* Palo Alto California: National Press Books, 1971.

Selznick, P. *TVA and the Grass Roots* Berkeley:Univ. of California Press, 1949.

Thomason, C.F. "The Headmaster's Decision Role" in Hughes, M.G.(ed.) *Secondary School Administration: A Management Approach* Oxford: Pergamon., 1974.

Thompson, V.A. "Hierarchy, Specialization, and Organizational Conflict" *Administrative Science Quarterly* 5:485–521, 1961.

Thorndike, E.L. *Human Nature and the Social Order* New York:Macmillan, 1940.

Weins, J. cited in Miklos, E. "Organizational Structure and Teacher Behaviour" *ERIC Reproduction,* Alberta, 1969.

Widmer, K. "Rebellion as Education" in Hamalian, L. and Karl, F.J. (eds.) *The Radical Vision* New York:Thomas Y. Crowell, 1970.

Wolin, S. and Shaar, J. "Berkeley, the Battle of People's Park" in Hamalian and Karl, *The Radical Vision.*

Yablonski, L. *The Hippe Trip* New York:Pegasus, 1968.

Young, M. *Innovation and Research in Education* London:Routledge and Kegan-Paul, 1965.

ADDITIONAL BIBLIOGRAPHY

Castetter, W.B. "*The Personnel Function in Educational Administration*" Macmillan Publishing, New York, 1978.

Tagliere, D.A. *People, Power and Organization.* AMACON, a division of American Management Organizations, 1973.

Von Haden, H.I. and King, J.M. *Educational Innovator's Guide.* Chas A. Jones Publishing Company, Belmont, California, 1974.

MANAGERIAL DISCRETION: A KEY CONCEPT FOR THE PRINCIPAL[1]

Leonard E. Watson
Head
Department of Education Management
Sheffield City Polytechnic

This is a revised form of a paper originally presented to an international conference of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration Nicosia, Cyprus, January 1980.

It is to be published during 1981 *by the C.C.E.A. in its series "Studies in Educational Administration".*

My dictionary defines 'discretion' as "(1) Liberty or power of deciding or acting as one thinks fit;(2) discernment, prudence, judgement." It is in the former sense that I will be using the term in this paper, and applying it to a view of the school and of its management. The notion of 'discretion' implies the existence of some rules or policies (the two may function very similarly on occasion) which serve to restrict discretion and within the scope of which discretion may be exercised. In doing so, they limit (and are intended to limit) institutional autonomy.

Rules clearly fall into two broad categories: those that prescribe the procedures which are to be adopted in the operation of a system, and with *how* the system will be operated (procedural rules); and those state the *content or nature* of what is to be done (substantive rules). The former may be illustrated by rules governing conditions of service of staff, or machinery for financial control; the latter, by curriculum specifications or lists of approved textbooks. Such rules have clear advantages and clearly are necessary for the functioning of any system.

---

[1] I am indebted to my colleagues Geoffrey Winter (for suggesting to me certain key ideas in this paper) and David Lancaster, for commenting on an earlier draft.

Five main arguments typically are given for the control of schools by a central bureaucracy, through the operation of rules:

1. The need for ensuring that education and the education system operates in a way consistent with national policy; especially in situations where education is seen as a major instrument for social change;
2. The need for the quality of education to be monitored, and resources applied, in the light of unevenness of the quality of the teaching force;
3. The need for efficiency in the use of national resources;
4. The need for public accountability for the use of public resources;
5. The need for rules to provide a public framework for the making of decisions which will be seen to apply equally to all.

These are important functions, and all point to the need for universalistic, publicly-stated policies and rules governing many aspects of the life of schools. However, certain limitations of rules need also to be noted.

The Limitations of Rules in Education

First, the notion of a rule implies a certain relationship between ends and means; it assumes that, where the end is agreed, the appropriate means may be stated, either by a rule specifying certain standardized procedures, or by the taking of certain types of action (as in the case of substansive rules). In both cases, there is the assumption of a certain clarity and necessity to the ends-means relationship, i.e. that the goal will be achieved if (and often it is assumed, *only if*) the rule is followed.

Now it is clear that in the case of a number of decisions taken within the education service these assumptions can fairly be said to hold good: areas concerned with financial allocation and control, with the provision of buildings and equipment, and perhaps with some aspects of staffing. On the other hand, the vast majority of actions taken within a school system take place within schools and their classrooms, and are of a quite different nature to those suggested above. Teaching essentially is concerned with complex human relationships and dynamics, incorporated within the teaching-learning process, and is inadequately conceptualized as something amenable to standardized procedures. The relationships between ends and means in education are complex in the extreme, and we certainly are in no position at the moment to demonstrate that any particular end can best be achieved by one means to the exclusion of others: even in such a well-researched area as the teaching of reading, there is no clear evidence of the superiority of one method of teaching over all others. The methods of teaching and of classroom organisation, and details of the curriculum which may be appropriate in one classroom may not be so in another within the same school, given differences for example in the personality, skills and abilities of individual teachers. Even the curriculum is only a means to further ends, and ought not to be an end in itself. Therefore a particular curriculum can be justified only to the extent that it provides opportunities for agreed and desired goals to be achieved.

Teaching is not, and cannot properly be, a process of applying some standardized uniform rules or procedures to certain situations. The teaching process is more art than science, and is concerned to bring together a wide and complex range of variables within unique specific situations, in order to achieve certain sorts of goals – goals which are themselves very complex, and often conflicting. At the centre of this complexity is human personality: the personalities both of teacher and of taught. This realization of the complexity of the teaching task, and the implication that different means may achieve the same ends, and different ends may be met by the same means (what systems theorists would refer to as the principle of equifinality) is profoundly important in the development of ways in which schools can be assisted to be more effective: and has been singularly lacking in much of the research literature on teacher effectiveness.

Similarly, the task of the school principal is complex (even more so than that of the classroom teacher) and characterized by the same ambiguity of means-end relationships. Some aspects of this work clearly meet to an adequate extent the requirement of a rule-oriented system – matters of financial procedures, conditions of service, and so on. But essentially his task is to lead his staff, and relate to pupils and the community, in developing the quality of education provided by the School (Watson, 1978). Here again the ambiguity of means-ends relationships is most imoortant. There is no more one 'correct' way to achieve these things than there is one 'correct' way to run a classroom. Experience may well suggest that some approaches are more likely to be successful than others (or, more often, that some approaches are more likely to be disastrous than others). But even in these cases, one can find examples where the improbable or otherwise undesirable happened, and worked well, because of a particular set of circumstances. It is the implication of this that the decision as to what action should be taken in a particular situation has to be taken as closely as possible to that situation, and in the light of the information that is available at that time; and that therefore the 'rule' may at best be irrelevant, at worst a real obstruction to effective decision-making. It follows that for the school principal there is need for discretion, for the power (and the right) to act in the light of one's judgement, within a particular situation.

In fact, teachers and principals *do* have discretion: the facts of their siruation impose this upon them. They simply cannot unquestioningly act according to the rules, for to do so would bring them into conflict with pupils, parents and each other. Rather, the experienced principal has developed ways of coping with the situations which arise: by 'bending' the rules on occasion, on his own behalf or that of staff, of 'turning the blind eye', and of maintaining minimal visibility.

This situation, where the nature of the work involves a necessary breaking of rules, where task achievement within the classroom and school conflicts with rules which can properly only apply to segments of the teacher role, creates problems for both teachers and principals; for often administrators expect a degree of uniformity of performance that is quite unrealistic. The dilemma cannot be resolved by principals or administrators simply going to the other extreme: for while they have on the one hand to recognise the uniqueness of the teaching situations, and therefore that particular ways of achieving goals may be appropriate in one situation but not in another; yet there is a real need for more uniformity than is achieved by summing together all of the particular situations and sets of possible ways of achieving classroom and school goals. Not all decisions can or should be made at school level. Resources have to be obtained and allocated to schools; accountability to the public through its formally elected or appointed representatives has to be exercised; certain overall policies have to be formulated, determined and implemented; all in order that the education system can be effective, not only in terms of the learning achieved by indicidual pupils, but in terms of economic and political goals set for the system as a whole – goals which may involved, in their implementation, considerations quite other than those which would be made taking into account the needs and characteristics of particular pupils or teachers.

The traditional formal method of resolving these tensions, within Western countries and within Third World countries influenced by modern industrialized systems, is to do so through the operation of a rule-oriented public bureaucracy. Under these circumstances, what usually happens is that the system is conceived of as being hierarchical, with the classroom at the bottom, the school next up, perhaps some divisional or regional authority next highest, and a central Ministry of Education as the peak of the pyramid; all operating under the general legislative direction of a central government. This bureaucracy then attemps to achieve a standardized and uniform performance, and the achievement of minimal standards, through the operation of complex rules which specify in varying degrees of detail what teachers, principals, and perhaps pupils should do, and how; what shall be taught, for how many hours, at what levels of schooling; which textbooks shall be used and how; how schools shall be organized and timetabled; which resources shall be given to schools, on what basis, and how these shall be used; and so on. Note particularly the role of the examination system in all of this. The result (and in most cases the intention) is to reduce to a minimum the areas of discretion of both teachers and principals: teaching in a classroom, or managing a school, is defined as and in fact becomes, very largely a matter of knowing and following a set of rules.

While this may seem something of a caricature, its essential truth will be apparent from the examination of the rule books published by a number of ministries of education; and from the action that is taken in such countries when a teacher or principal fails to observe one or more of these rules.

The consequences for the teacher and for the principal are considerable. The teacher is defined in essence as a clerk (a tendency often reinforced by the employment of teachers as civil servants under general conditions of service designed for the employment of clerical officers, and operated by civil servants); and the principal as a senior clerk, responsible for the proper operation of an office – 'proper' being all too often defined in terms of the bureaucratic criterion of following rules rather than of achieving goals. In such cases, it is normal to find that the school principal has a relatively low status within the education service: promotion is from running a school to supervising the operation of rules as an inspector of schools or as an education officer.

The consequences for the dynamics of change and innovation tend to be considerable. While it may be (it certainly is frequently claimed to be) easier to introduce and diffuse innovations within such systems, there must be considerable doubt on two issues: (a) by what process does the identification of need which leads to the development of an innovation, and the process whereby the innovation is formulated and approved, take place? How far is there 'censorship' by a relatively monolithic bureaucracy? (b) How far is the diffusion of an innovation by fiat, by regulation, seen as another rule or set of rules to be followed? And in that case, how far is this likely to lead to intelligent or committed application of the rules by teachers and principals?

Certainly the consequence of such a model of educational governance is to reduce considerably the discretion of teachers and of principals; and to ensure that whenever they do exercise discretion, it is immediately subject to review by a higher authority (the principal in the case of a teacher, an inspector or education officer in the case of a school principal).

What in fact happens in such cases, however? How far is the bureaucratic model effective in its goal of achieving uniformity and minimal standards? And how far does governance by rules in fact create the conditions that make it difficult for an education system to get beyond this level of functioning?

It must be admitted that there is little formal reliable evidence on this point, partly because few education systems are as rigorously bureaucratic as I have outlined above, and partly because of the considerable technical difficulties in using the little available information as evidence for or against the argument. On the other hand, there is a considerable body of experience to suggest that within the circumstances outlined above, the following are likely to happen:

(a) Many teachers and principals will in fact ignore the rules, or 'bend' them frequently. Thus, much of the curriculum actually taught and received by pupils, is far from that specified in formal documents.

(b) Very often specified procedures and rules are ignored through the ignorance or lack of understanding of those concerned.

(c) on the other hand, in their public performances and statements, teachers and principals will ensure that what they do is at least consistent with the rules and philosophy which they perceive as coming from 'the administration'.

(d) Many teachers and principals just accept the system, accept a 'clerical' definition of their role, and provide an education for their pupils that is routine, minimal and quite without development or innovation; and, in the process, themselves become almost impervious to attempts to change them. In doing so, of course, they provide rule-oriented administrators with living examples of why teachers cannot be trusted to be goal-oriented.

Thus, there can well be a real dichotomy between what actually happens in schools and what appears to be happening from outside. Experienced and insightful education officers and inspectors of schools often feel this gap, but equally often are unable either to explain it or bridge it.

Second, rules are designed for application to existing or forseen situations: it is not easy to legislate for the unimagined. This points to the relevance of rules to relatively standardized and repetitive situations and to the difficulties in formulating rules to prescribe for situations which are new or unique (Simon, 1960, pp. 5–6). But as we have seen, much of educational decision-making is concerned with the unique, and in a very real sense with the new – for such work as curriculum development, and the management of emergent educational policies and philosophies, cannot easily be encompassed within the limitations of a system of rules. When this does happen, it clearly tends to limit possibilities for development.

A third difficulty is the assumption, built into most rules, that they are an adequate statement in their own terms: that they cover in their verbal form or scope exactly the range of situations intended, neither more nor less. In practice, of course, this is well recognised not to be the case, and so there have to be ways of handling situations where the rules are inadequate. Thus within administrative systems procedures exist for:

(a) determining whether or not a rule aopplies to a particular situation;

(b) resolving situations when rules conflict (as they not infrequently do);

(c) providing for mechanisms to handle situations where the rule applies but should not (i.e., a legitimate means of avoiding the rule);

(d) appealing against the unfair or inequitable operation of a rule in a particular situation.

Under these circumstances, two types of activity may take place:..

1. The matching of some rule against some more general rule (e.g. a school rule against a Ministry ruling; or a Ministry regulation against the law of the land); or ultimately recourse to an appeal to 'natural justice'.
2. The matching of a rule against its likely consequences, in the light of the end that the rule is supposed to serve.

These are in logic and in procedure quite different, and profoundly so. The former is itself clearly within the 'rule' tradition, and is a technical question. The latter raises imposrtant questions of policy and goals, and is far more concerned with the exercise of judgement, i.e. with discretion. So the legal system itself recognises that the means-end relationships of rules (where the rule is intended to specify a particular means, or to prohibit a particular means to an end) is itself subject ultimately to the test as to whether or not, or the extent to which, a rule actually is not only consistent with other rules, but can reasonably be seen as contributing to desired ends.

Major function of rules is not only to guide behaviour, but to legitimize it, so that when a decision is challenged, the decision-maker can defend himself by showing that what he did was in accordance with a rule. From the decision-maker's position this has clear advantages. When it is necessary to convince subordinates of the need for a course of action, the rule can be quoted: when support from above is needed, the rule can be quoted; when mistakes are made, and the system fails, a recognised defence is: "I followed the rules". Following the rules is safe. It may not be the means to rapid promotion to the highest levels of the organisation, but at least it assures one of a future pension.

The Goal-Oriented System

The rule and its observance is not, however, the only means for justifying a decision or a course of action: There is another, which has already been glanced at above. This is to justify an action by stating a relationship between an agreed and desired end, and the course of action taken or proposed as an appropriate means to that end, by the use of such statements as "It worked", or "I can reasonably demonstrate the liklihood of it working, by demonstrating the link between the end or goal and the means I am proposing for achieving that goal".

It has been seen that this procedure is adopted at the highest levels or organisations in both the formulating of overall policies, in the specification of major rules, and in taking appropriate action when no rules exist or where their application would be inappropriate. However, such an organisational principle could be extended far further down any organisation: and in the case of school systems it ought, I believe, to be a normal expectation for school principals.

The difference between a rule-oriented and a goal-oriented system is essentially that in the former case, the rules are seen as pre-eminent, officials are defined as applyers and conservers of the rule system, and the heaviest sanctions are reserved for those who break the rules. In a goal-oriented system, the achievement of goals (whether educational or administrative) is seen as pre--eminent; rules are used only in so far as they contribute to the achievement of these goals; and merely to say that one followed the rules is a quite inadequate defence against charges of incompetence or inneffctiveness. Therefore within a rule-oriented system there is a tendency to restrict the area of discretion of officials through an ever closer and more detailed specification of rules, which saves their having to exercise significant discretion; while in a goal-oriented system the tendency is to maximize the areas of discretion available to officials at appropriate levels, introducing rules only when these are necessary. In place of rules come guiding principles – things which by definition cannot be 'broken', but which serve to assist the officer in making particular judgements.

This alternative model then would take as its axion the notion that the direction of administrative policy should be to maximize rather than to minimize the discretion given to schools and to principals; while doing so in a manner which would ensure as far as is possible the increasing effectiveness of the schools.

Let us see what this would involve with respect to certain key areas of school life.

1. **The Curriculum.** In most centralised school systems, the curriculum is determined centrally (usually through curriculum committees representative of the central Ministry, teacher education bodies, schools and universities). Typically the curriculum is laid down in considerable detail; and it is the job of the principal to ensure that within his school the curriculum is adhered to by classroom teachers, with a minimum of variation, and then only within limits previously defined by the Ministry (e.g. through the use of optional sections of curricula). In the 'distributed' mode of managing schools, the Ministry would be concerned only with the provision of certain guidelines of policy, centering around the question of goals and direction; the means of achieving these goals would be very largely left to the schools themselves, or to the schools in interaction with such bodies as examination boards. This is not to say that 'anything goes'; the assumption is that there would be a need for schools to be accountable for the decisions they took; but accountable not in term of adherence to rules, but in terms of the coherence of a curriculum and its relevance to agreed goals.

2. **Teaching Methods and School Organisation.** This is an area where typically there is most freedom within the hierarchical systems, largely because of the acknowledged impossibility, and perhaps the undesirability, of ensuring uniformity. Too often, however, such 'freedom' for the teacher and for the school is a negative thing: he has freedom because the Ministry is not able to take it away in practice, rather than because it is freely conferred. Inspection therefore takes on an unnecessarily punative aspect. The style of management I am advocating would take as its starting point the professional responsibility of the teacher and of the school for ensuring that methods of classroom organisation and of teaching (and I include here teaching materials) are appropriate to the task in hand, in the light of the particular circumstances prevailing. Inspection in this situation would centre around assisting teachers to think through these questions, and to develop appropriate skills; and would itself be goal-oriented rather than rule-oriented.

3. **The Management of Resources.** This has two primary

levels: the allocation of resources to the school, and the management of resources within the school. The former clearly is a matter which the individual teacher or school should not be able to decide (although schools might well participate in the process of determining the criteria by which resources would be allocated.) On the other hand, when it comes to the management of resources within the school, I believe that again far too often this is done with respect to rules rather than to goals. Given appropriate guidance and support, the principal should have much more discretion than typically is the case over the way in which the school's resources are managed.

I suggest that in most school systems, especially in Third World countries, the school systems are fairly heavily oriented to the rule system: and that although on occasions some emphasis is placed upon the importance of school principals' using their discretion and initiative, in fact this is only a gloss upon the operation of the system, and is seen to be such both by principals and by higher administrators.

The Management of Change: an Example in Practice

One ThirdWorld country in which I have worked as a consultant decided to take some of these arguments seriously. Traditionally its Ministry of Education had maintained a tight control over the schools through a thick rule-book and a strong team of inspectors of schools. Details of curriculum, school organisation and so on were specified in detail: for example, each year every school timetable (both elementary and secondary) had to be approved by central Ministry officials before it could be implemented. However, many officials felt that the system was not working at all well. Standards of education were falling rather than improving, education was receiving considerable criticism from the community, teacher morale was low; although a number of curriculum and organisational innovations had been instituted by the Ministry, they had not worked well in the schools despite much careful work done by inspectors, education officers, university teachers and selected school principals. Delinquency in schools, and pupil absenteeism, were rising. So it was decided to introduce a larger measure of discretion into the role of the school principal Very cautiously, he was allowed to have discretion over certain aspects of the organisation of his school, and given more responsibility for the performance of teachers.

Over a period of time, several things became apparent:

1. Many of the school principals did not really want the extra responsibility. This was not surprising: for those principals who would have welcomed the opportunity had moved into other areas of work – into lecturing, or commerce – while the system had promoted, and in doing so reinforced the behaviour of, those who were most rule-oriented.

2. Those who did welcome the changes very soon found that the Ministry was only delegating things which the Ministry itself found most irksome to control, or things which were felt to be of least importance. As a result, the Ministry was seen as not really being committed to the dispersion of its powers to the principals.

3. This happened partly because the delegation of powers was done piecemeal. As a result, the principals often found that they were expected to exercise judgement on a matter where their hands were in fact tied through the Ministry's control of other aspects of school life. The changes were based upon no coherent philosophy either or education or of management.

4. The principals were quite inadequately prepared for the extra responsibilities they were given. Where now they were expected to take responsibility for making decisions on a largely goal-oriented basis (although still circumscribed by tight rules), they lacked practice or confidence in doing so, and significant skills. This was not anticipated by the Ministry, and when courses for principals were arranged they came too late to restore principals' faith either in their own capacities or in the Ministry.

5. The Inspectorate, also, were ill-prepared both in content areas and in process skills. Where their role previously had been sentally that of inspecting to see that the rules were observed, they now had to include in their role the provision of advice and assistance in taking goal-oriented decisions. They therefore tended to revert to their inspectorial role even in the 'new' areas. Consequently the principals had, they believed, first-hand evidence of the lack of commitment of the Ministry to the principal's discretionary role, as evidenced by the behaviour

of inspectors who made very clear when they did or did not approve of the decisions taken by principals – so that the decisions actually taken tended to look remarkably like the ones previously taken by the Ministry officials!

6. This tendency was reinforced by the fact that the inspectors had to continue to exercise their traditional role with respect to the large number of rules which still existed. Naturally there was a 'spill-over' from one area to the other.
7. Finally, the whole situation was not assisted by the divisions within the Ministry itself: while certain of the more professionally-oriented senior directorate in the Ministry were convinced of the importance of their delegating more to the principals, and took every opportunity at meetings to tell the principals so, this work was often subtly undermined by rule-oriented and control-oriented administrators at lower levels who frequently penalized principals who took steps of which they did not approve.

So the message that actually got through to the principals was: "In these areas, do as your professional judgement suggests is right, so long as the administrators in the office and your Inspector agree; but do not be caught out suggesting anything with which they disagree, else you will become suspect."

The Management of Change: Some Pointers

Both experience and management theory then suggest that there are a number of factors which must be taken into account if a system is to move from a rule-orientation to a goal-orientation, without becoming less rather than more effective. Some of these, factors are:

1. The changes must be based upon a coherent and thought-through educational and management philosophy. The administration of any system is complex: that of education is particularly so, because of the nature of the teaching-learning process. Unless careful thought is given to the relationship between desired rules and those that are unnecessary, and unless the result is coherent, it will not be acceptable to either the teachers or to the administrators, and will fail. The school principals will need considerable opportunity to develop an understanding

of this philosophy, and of the values that underlie it; and of how to go about determining and implementing school policy in the light of the framework given from the Ministry.

There will be need also for Ministry officials to understand *why* the change is brought about; why it should result in more effective education; and the conditions which will be necessary to ensure the success of the policy. Particularly it is disastrous if one part of the Ministry pull in one direction and other parts in other directions.

2. The change must be properly prepared for. New skills will be needed by both teachers and principals, and they will need to develop new attitudes and working relationships. There will be need for the staff of schools, and especially the principals, to receive considerable support in taking these new steps. This support may take the form of advice,materials, expertize or training programmes: but throughout, it must be geared to the development both of the skills and of the professional self-confidence of the principal. The *style* by which the Ministry officials work, the inspectors and education officers, therefore will be a critical factor in determining whether or not the principals feel supported. In this context, it is worth nothing that the principal has a responsibility also for his own professional development.

3. The principal will need to be assisted to see that it is not sufficient to claim discretion for himself: this claim has implications also for his staff. Just as the development of the principal becomes a primary responsibility for the Ministry of Education, so the development of teaching and other staff becomes a prime responsibility for the principal.

4. The move towards greater discretion for school principals has major implications for the roles of inspectors and education officers: towards providing advice, assistance and support, and not just rules, interpretations of rules, and decisions. Many administrators will find such changes even more difficult than will principals. They will need development and training in their understanding and skills, and will need support in learning their new role.

5. Structural changes might well be involved, especially those tha trelate to the relative positions of administrators and school principals. Where in the rule-oriented system amost all principals were seen as relatively subordinate, in the goal-oriented system they take their place alongside inspectors and education officers as co-professionals with wide powers, responsible for the 'delivery-system' of education.

6. Managerial discretion is more likely to be effectively exercised if the boundaries to this discretion are made quite clear to all of those concerned (Brown, 1965, pp. 118–120.)

7. Finally, there will be a considerable need still for the monitoring of the performance of the schools, and for the schools themselves to take into consultation in this process (Smith, 1980). It is essential, however, that the accountability be seen, not in terms of whether or not rules are followed alone: but, in the professional areas, in the ways in which,and the extent to which, the schools can state reasoned arguments for the ways in which they are attempting to achieve the overall goals of the school system. "Are we acting in ways which are reasonably likely to be effective?" is now the question to be faced; and the task of the Ministry is less to grade principals according to the answers given, than to assist them towards being more able to meet the challenge of the question.

Conclusions

In this paper I have attempted to suggest, not that there is no place for rules within the school systems – to do so would be absurd – but that systems may be more or less rule-oriented, and more or less goal-oriented: that there are profound differences between the two; that by its very nature the teaching-learning process cannot effectively be developed through a rule-oriented bureaucracy; that the goal-oriented alternative requires that more and more discretion be given to schools and to their principals; and finally, that if this challenge is to be taken up, there are a number of considerations which will have to be kept in mind if the change to a goal-oriented system is to be carried through effectively.[2]

The message of this paper will be no news to seminar participants from some countries: it may have some novelty for others. But even in those systems where principals have considerable autonomy (one thinks here especially of Great Britain), there are many areas in the life of the school in which a rule-oriented bureaucracy distorts the work of schools by refusing to accept the implications of having a fully professional, goal-oriented education service; and examples of school principals who are far from accepting the implications for their own management styles and relationships with colleagues, of their privileged position.

REFERENCES

Brown, W. (1965), *Explorations in Management.* Penguin.

Burns, T. and G.M. Stalker (1961), *The Management of Innovation.* Tavistock.

Likert, R. (1961), *New Patterns of Management.* McGraw-Hill...

McGregor, D. (1960), *The Human Side of Enterprise.*

Schein, E.H. (1965), *Organisational Psychology.* Prentice-Hall.

Simon, H.A. (1960), *The New Science of Management Decision.* Harper and Row.

Smith, K.R. (1980), *Developments Towards Formalised Processes for School Self-Evaluation.* Sheffield City Polytechnic, Department of Education Management (Sheffield Papers in Education Management, No. 18).)

Watson, L.E. (1978), *The School and the Community.* Sheffield City Polytechnic, Department of Education Management (Sheffield Papers in Education Management, No. 2.).

Whiting, N. (1980), *Management Within the Closing School.* Sheffield City Polytechnic, Department of Education Management (Sheffield Papers in Education Management, No. 14).

---

[2] The argument of this paper is congruent with points made by a number of writers on organisations. For example, Simon (1960) distinguishes between programmed decisions which can be handle by a rule-oriented mode of operation and non-programmed decisions which are more likely to need a goal-oriented approach; and Schein's (1965) distinction between rational-economic man assumptions which tend to a rule-oriented organisation, compared with self-acrualising man assumptions which lead to a goal-oriented organisation. Similarly, McGregor (1960), Likert (1961) with respect to his systems 1 and 4, and Burns and Stalker (1961) in their distinction between mechanistic and organismic modes of organisation, relate to the distinction I am suggesting.

LEADERSHIP QUALITIES NEEDED BY PRINCIPALS AND INSPECTORS - OPINIONS OF TEACHERS IN CYPRUS

Dr. A. Papadopoulos
Inspector
Primary Education
CYPRUS

The decision to carry out a study on the leadership qualities of inspectors and principals, who are serving in that capacity, was made within the framework of the re-examination of our school practices after the tragedy inflicted on our school system by the Turkish invasion in July 1974. It was also an outcome of the writer's growing awareness, based on the years of his experience – that the principal and inspector are the key figures, the crucial determinants, in the change process.

The writer is cognizant of the fact that the problem of identifying and evaluating the leadership qualities of an individual is extremely complex and difficult (Flanagan, 6:1961; Stogdill, 20:1974); as Thomas (21:1977) put it:

> Educational leadership is extremely complex.
> Simple models do not adequately explain it.
> The concept must be examined wholistically,
> in context with history, not in isolation from
> the organisation, forces, and events that
> surround it.

However, despite all difficulties involved, it was finally decided that it would be useful to have the opinions of teachers and principals on the most important leadership qualities necessary for inspectors and principals, for an effctive performance of their roles.

The usefulness and importance of this kind of information has been very successfully commented upon by Neville (16:1966) when he wrote:

> If I am aware of the disparity between my
> intentions and the "reality" with which they

> are perceived, it may be possible to take steps to mediate the difference and slowly build the trust and mutual respect so necessary for instructional improvement.

More recently Ogilvie (17:1977) dealt with "the evaluation of administrator and teacher, with a view to bringing about improvement".

It was with this hope of finding ways to mediate any differences between "intentions" and "reality" that this study was undertaken.

(2) THE PROBLEM

This is not a complete study in itself but it constitutes part of a larger study, conducted by the writer among all teachers and principals of Cyprus.

The main purpose of the larger study was the evaluation of principals and inspectors by all teachers and principals, regarding certain "leadership qualities", with a view to using this information as feedback for the further development of the supervisory and leadership role of both the principal and the inspector.

The terms "leadership qualities" are used in a very broad and general sense to include traits, characteristics, behaviours skills, capabilities and competencies of the person who is in a leadership position. I shall not even try to define "leadership" because, as Stogdill (20:1974) put it "there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept."

A secondary purpose of the study was to investigate the opinions of teachers and principals on what they regard as the ten most important "leadership qualities" for principals and inspectors for the effective performance of their roles.

The main part of the study has not yet been completed. This paper is a resport on the findings, regarding the secondary purpose of the study i.e. the ten most important leadership qualities needed by principals and inspectors, according to the opinions of teachers and principals.

(3) PROCEDURES—METHODOLOGY

Based on the literature, a questionnaire consisting of twenty nine items (statements) on the main "leadership qualities necessary for principals and inspectors of primary education was constructed by the writer. This list of 29 statements was circulated among the head, the inspector-general, and all inspectors of primary education, the primary teachers' organisation, five principals and ten teachers for comments and suggestions.

The suggestions made led to the analysis of some of the items and the completion of the whole list, thus arriving at a final questionnaire of 40 items. (Please see Appendix).

The said final questionnaire was then mailed by the Department of Primary Education to all principals and teachers (2,250) subjects) with a covering letter by the Head of Primary Education, asking for their cooperation.

The subjects were asked to evaluate the Cypriot principal and inspector in general, not a specific person, giving him/her a grade for each item, using a five-point scale 1–5. If the principal or inspector demonstrated what the statement was indicating to the highest possible degree then the subject would give the highest grade i.e. 5; if to the lowest possible degree 1, and if somewhere in between 2, 3 or 4. All statements were positive. Grades would be given to principals and inspectors separately.

To the second part of the questionnaire the subjects were asked to choose from the 40 statements only the ten statements they regarded as the most important for the principal and the inspector separately; and having chosen them, they were asked to put them in a rank order.

The subjects were asked to give some personal information regarding status, sex etc., not sign the questionnaire, and try to express their opinions as objectively and frankly as possible.

The findings of the second part of the study are reported in this paper.

One thousand, eight hundred and eighteen (1418) completed replies were received in response to the 2250 requests, as follows:

248

Status	Questionnaires Mailed	Completed Replies	Percent
Principals A	131	98	74.81
Principals	141	102	72.34
Assistant Principals	114	108	94.74
Teachers A	1244	749	60.21
Teachers	401	241	60.10
Teachers on probation	28	17	60.71
Teachers on contract	191	103	53.93
TOTAL	2250	1418	63.02

A computer was used for the tabulations by assigning ten points to the item ranked first, nine to the second and so on, with one point assigned to the item ranked tenth. The item with the highest total number of points was ranked first, the item immediately after that second and so on.

(4) FINDINGS

In table 1 the data, as given by the computer, is presented in rank order by groups of subjects for principals and inspectors separately.

In table 2 the frequency of the appearance of each item among the seven groups of subjects is shown and weights are assigned. For each first place ten points are assigned, for each second place nine points and so on, until the tenth place for which only one point is assigned. By assigning weights the degree of agreement for the importance of the item among the groups of subjects is determined and the rank order is found for the items referring to the principals.

Table 3 does for the inspectors what table 2 does for the principals.

Table 4 combines the data of tables 3 and 4, giving the degree of agreement among groups and the rank order of items for both principals and inspectors.

In table 5 the ten most important items are shown in rank order for principals, inspectors, and for both, as well as the degree of agreement among the seven groups of subjects.

Tables 6, 7 and 8 present the ten most important items by name, in rank order, for principals, inspectors, and principals and inspectors respectively.

TABLE 1

THE TEN MOST IMPORTANT ITEMS FOR PRINCIPALS AND INSPECTORS BY GROUP OF SUBJECTS, IN RANK ORDER

Rank	Principals A		Principals		Assistant B.		Teachers A		Teachers		On Probation		On Contract	
order	Princ.	Insp.	Princ.	Insp.	Princ.	Insp.	Princ.	Insp.	Princ.	Insp.	Princ.	Insp.	Princ.	Insp.
1st	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2nd	2	7	15	6	6	7	7	7	2	7	5	5	2	2
3rd	4	6	31	2	7	6	6	6	6	5	2	14	5	5
4th	6	4	38	7	2	2	2	5	7	2	14	7	6	7
5th	7	2	17	4	4	5	4	2	34	38	6	12	7	14
6th	16	38	25	5	5	38	5	38	5	6	4	16	4	38
7th	19	14	14	38	34	17	34	4	4	14	10	10	34	12
8th	29	5	28	14	21	34	21	14	21	34	7	38	21	6
9th	21	34	2	14	3	27	10	34	10	10	21	39	10	39
10th	25	27	24	12	10	4	38	9	14	39	34	20	14	9

TABLE 2

FREQUENCY, WEIGHTS, DEGREE OF AGREEMENT AMONG GROUPS AND RANKING OF ITEMS FOR PRINCIPALS

		Rank order given by the groups												
No. of item	Fre-guency	1st 10p.	2nd 9p.	3rd 8p.	4th 7p.	5th 6p.	6th 5p.	7th 4p.	8th 3p.	9th 2p.	10th 1p.	Total points nts	Deg-agree-ment	Rank-ing[£
1	7	7	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	70	1.00	1
2	7	–	3	1	2	–	–	–	–	1	–	51	97.73	2
3	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	2	.03	17
4	6	–	–	1	–	2	2	1	–	–	–	34	.49	5
5	5	–	–	1	–	–	3	–	–	–	–	32	.46	6
6	6	–	1	2	2	1	–	–	–	–	–	45	.64	3
7	6	–	1	1	1	2	–	–	1	–	–	39	.56	4
9	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
10	5	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	3	1	11	.16	10
12	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
14	4	–	–	–	1	–	–	1	–	–	2	13	.19	9
15	1	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	9	.13	11
16	1	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	5	.07	14
17	1	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	6	'09	13
19	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	4	.06	15
20	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
21	6	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	4	2	–	16	.23	8
24	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	.01	18
25	2	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	1	6	.09	13
7	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
28	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	3	.04	16
29	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	3	.04	16
1	1	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	8	.11	12
4	5	–	–	–	–	1	–	3	–	–	1	19	.27	7
58	2	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	1	8	.11	12
19	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		–	–	–	–	–	–

TABLE E

FREQUENCY, WEIGHTS, DEGREE OF AGREEMENT AMONG GROUPS AND RANKING OF ITEMS FOR INSPECTORS

		Rank order given by the groups												
1	7	7	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	70	1.00	1
2	6	–	1	1	2	2	–	–	–	–	–	43	.61	4
3	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
4	4	–	–	–	1	1	–	1	–	–	1		.26	8
5	7	–	1	2	1	1	1	–	1	–	–	46	.66	3
6	6	–	1	3	–	–	1	–	1	–	–	41	.59	5
7	7	–	4	–	3	–	–	–	–	–	–	57	.81	2
9	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	2	.03	15
10	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	1	–	6	.09	11
12	3	–	–	–	–	1	–	1	–	–	1	11	.16	10
14	6	–	–	1	–	1	–	2	2	–	–	28	.40	7
15	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
16	1	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	5	.07	12
17	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	4	.06	13
19	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
20	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	.01	16
21	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
24	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
25	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
27	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	3	.04	14
28	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
39	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
31	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	g	–
34	5	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	3	–	12	.17	9
38	7	–	–	–	–	1	4	1	1	–	–	33	.47	6
39	3	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	1	5	.07	12

TABLE 4

FREQUENCY, WEIGHTS, DEGREE OF AGREEMENT AMONG GROUPS AND RANKING OF ITEMS FOR PRINCIPALS AN INSPECTORS

No. of item	Fre-guency	Rank order given by the groups										Total points	Deg-gree of agree-ment	Rank-ing
		1st 10p.	2nd 9p.	3rd 8p.	4th 7p.	5th 6p.	6th 5p.	7th 4p.	7th 3p.	9th 2p.	10th 1p.			
1	14	14	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	140	1.00	1
2	13	-	4	2	4	2	–	–	–	1	–	94	.67	3
3	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	2	.01	19
4	10	–	–	1	1	3	2	2	–	–	1	52	.37	6
5	12	–	2	3	1	1	4	–	1	–	–	78	.56	5
6	12	–	2	5	2	1	1	–	1	–	–	86	.61	4
7	13	–	5	1	4	2	–	–	1	–	–	96	.69	2
9	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	2	.01	19
10	7	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	–	4	1	17	.12	9
12	3	–	–	–	–	1	–	1	–	–	1	11	.08	11
14	10	–	–	1	1	1	–	3	2	–	2	41	.29	7
15	1	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	9	.06	13
16	2	–	–	–	–	–	2	–	–	–	–	10	.07	12
17	2	–	–	–	–	1	–	1	–	–	–	10	.07	12
19	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	–	4	.03	17
20	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	.00	20
21	6	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	4	2	–	16	.11	10
24	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	.00	20
25	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	6	.04	15
27	2	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	3	.02	18
28	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	3	.02	18
29	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	–	–	3	.02	18
31	1	–	–	1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	8	.06	14
3434	10	–	–	–	–	1	–	3	2	3	1	31	.22	8
38	9	–	–	–	1	1	4	1	1	–	1	41	.29	7
39	3	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2	1	5	.04	16

TABLE 5

THE TEN MOST IMPORTANT ITEMS IN RANK ORDER AND DEGREE OF AGREEMENT AMONG GROUPS FOR PRINCIPALS, INSPECTORS, AND BOTH

	For principals		For inspectors		For princ inspect.	
Rank order	No. of item	Degr. of agr.	No. of item	Degr. of agr.	Degr. of item	Degr. of agr.
1st	1	1.00	1	1.00	1	1.00
2nd	2	.73	7	.81	7	.69
3rd	6	.64	5	.66	2	.67
4th	7	.56	2	.61	6	.61
5th	4	.49	6	.59	5	.56
6th	5	.46	38	.47	4	.37
7th	34	.27	14	.40	14	.29
8th	21	.23	4	.26	34	.22
9th	14	.19	34	.17	10	.12
10th	10	.16	12	.16	21	.11

TABLE 6

THE TEN MOST IMPORTANT ITEMS IN RANK ORDER FOR PRINCIPALS

Rank order	No. of items	Item name
1st	1	He/She has an excellent knowledge of and ability on what is relevant to the teaching-learning process.
2nd	2	He/She plans his/her work at the very beginning of the year, in collaboration with the teachers, hence everybody is aware of his/her objectives.
3rd	6	His/Her approach and general behaviour create the necessary climate, wherein a democratic spirit among teachers, pupils and the community in general can develop.
5th	7	He/She inspires the teachers in their work with the many positive characteristics of his/her personality and generally with his/her humanistic behaviour.
5th	4	He/She is enthusiastic in his/her work, he/she workds with zeal, and regards his/her job as a mission.
4th	5	He/She regards him/herself – and behaves – as a collaborator in the whole educational effort.
7th	34	He/She is a real collaborator of the teacher, who considers him/her an effective helper in all difficulties of the job.
	21	He/She has excellent relations with the teachers and he/she communicates with them on a personal basis.
9th	14	He/She encourages a dialogue and discusses with pleasure opinions which are different from his/her own.
10th	10	He/She demonstrates by means of his/her whole attritude and behaviour that he/she respects the teachers' and children's opinions and that he/she trusts them.

TABLE 7

THE TEN MOST IMPORTANT ITEMS IN RANK ORDER FOR PRINCIPALS

Rank order	No. of items	Item name
1st	1	He/She has an excellent knowledge of and ability on whai is trelevan to the teaching-learning process.
2nd	7	He/She inspires the teachers in their work with the many positive characteristics of his/her personality and generally with his/her humanistic behaviour.
3rd	5	He/She regards him/herself – and behaves – as a collaborator in the whole educational efffort.
4th	2	He/She plans his/her work at the very beginning the year, in collaboration with the teachers, hence everygody is aware of his/her objectives.
5th	6	His/Her approach and general behaviour create the necessary climate, wherein a democratic spirit among teachers, pupils and the community in general can develop.
6th	38	He/She is objective, fair and responsible in evaluating the teachers' and children's work.
7th	14	He/She encourages a dialogue and discusses with pleasure opinions which are different from his her own.
8th	4	He/She is enthusiastic in his/her work, he/she, works with zeal, and regards his/her job as a mission.
9th	34	He/She is a real collaborator of the teacher, who considers hin/her an effective helper in all difficulties of the job.
10th	12	He/She knows very well the school's environment and makes suggestio[illegible] the basis of the concrete conditions, which prevail in [illegible]er's work.

TABLE 8

THE TEN MOST IMPORTANT ITEMS IN RANK ORDER FOR PRINCIPALS AND INSPECTORS

Rank order	No. of items	Item name
1st	1	He/She has an excellent knowledge of and ability on what is relevant to the teaching-learning process.
	7	He/She inspires the teachers in their work with the many positive characterisitcs of his/her personality and generally with his/her humanistic behaviour.
3rd	2	He/She plans his/her work at the very beginning of the year, in collaboration with the teachers, hence everybody is aware of his/her objectives.
4th	6	His/Her approach and general behaviour create the necessary climate, wherein a democratic spirit among teachers, pupils and the community in general can develop.
5th	5	He/She regards him/herself – and behaves – as a collaborator in the whole educational effort.
6th	4	He/She is enthusiastic in his/her work, he/she works with zeal, and regards his/her job as a mission.
7th	14	He/She encourages a dialogue and discusses with pleasure opinions which are different from his/her own.
8th	34	He/She is a real collaborator of the teacher, who considers him/her an effective helper in all difficulties of the job.
9th	10	He/She demonstrates with his/her whole attitude and behaviour that he/she respects the teachers' and children's opinions and that he/she trusts them.
10th	21	He/She has excellent relations with the teachers and he/she communicates with them on a personal basis.

(5) REVIEW OF RELEVANT STUDIES

Before proceeding to the discussion of the findings, a very quick reference to the development of ideas, regarding the leadership role of the principal and supervisor, might be appropriate.

Men have, since the beginning of recorded history, wrestled with the question of qualities needed for successful leadership. Even Moses touched this point saying that good communication is necessary for effective leadership (Wofford, 22:1970).

Various surveys on studies by Bird, Stogdill, Carter and Nixon, Hamblin, and Barnard, regarding leadership traits, came to the conclusion that few traits were found consistently in the studies, according to Galfo (7:1975).

After the failure to find any constant relationship between certain traits and successful leadership, researchers focused their attention on leadership behaviour.

Bowers and Seashore, according to Wofford (22:1970), after an extensive survey of many studies, concluded that there are four dimensions of leadership behaviour: a) support, b) interaction facilitation, c) goal emphasis, and d) work facilitation.

Wofford (23:1971) informs us that management theory and research of the two decades 1950–1970 focused on two hebaviour styles, variously referred to as employee centered or job contered (Likert, 1964), people oriented or production oriented (Blake and Mouton, 1964), democratic or autocratic (White and Lippitt, 1960), high least preferred co-worker or low least preferred co-worker (Fiedler, 1967), and consideration or initiating structure (Fleishman, 1957). Halpins (10:1966) study, employing the last two dimensions – "consideration" or "initiating structure" is also very well known.

Many other researchers and theorists in recent years have come to the same general conclusion – that two major elements are involved in leadership style: leader behaviour and group operation. Among those is Chester Barnard (2:1938) who distinguished between organisational effectiveness and organisational efficiency, Cartwright and Zander (3:1960) who spoke about the achievement of group goals and the maintenance or strengthening of the group itself, Kahn and Katz (12:1960) who identified two general types of supervisory behaviour: "employee-orientation" and "production-orientation". Finally Getzels and Guba (8:1957) derived the three well known styles of leadership: the "nomothetic style", which emphasizes the requirements of the institution, roles and role expectations, the "idiographic style", which puts the emphasis on the needs and demands of the individual, and the "transactional style", which is the intermediate between the two polar styles, encouraging the interaction between the "nomothetic" and "idiographic" dimensions.

Present supervisory practices in schools, according to Sergiovanni (19:1975), are based on one, or a combination, of three supervisory theories – *traditional, scientific management,* and *neo-scientific management.* In traditional scientific management teachers are heavily supervised in an effort to ensure for administrators and supervisors that good teaching would take place. In human relations supervision, teachers are nurtured and involved in efforts to increase their job satisfaction. In neo-scientific management, impersonal, technical or relational control mechanisms substitute for face-to-face, close supervision. Standards of performance, and objectives or competencies are identified and teachers are held accountable to these standards. "Never fully adequate in the first place, Sergiovanni stresses, each of the three images is becoming increasingly inadequate."

Cawelti (4:1979), in a very recent article, contends that according to theorists, the most appropriate style must demonstrate equal concern for people and production or initiate structure and consideration behaviour. This conclusion is supported by earlier studies, also conducted during the 1950's and 1960's, at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan, in which it is indicated that the most successful leaders, in terms of group productivity, were those whose behaviour was perceived by the group as balanced between the human relations factor and initiating structure (Galfo, 7:1975).

(6) OBSERVATIONS-DISCUSSION

Looking at table 5, one is impressed by the high degree of coincidence between qualities needed by both principals and inspectors, according to the opinions of teachers.

Eight of the ten highest ranked qualities are perceived by all seven groups of subjects as most needed by both principals and inspectors. These qualities are the ones numbered: 1,2,4,5,6,7,14 and 34. There is, of course, a slight difference in the rank order of these qualities between principals and inspectors, nevertheless the fact remains that all eight qualities are regarded by all groups of subjects as most important for both principals and inspectors.

The correlation between the two categories (principals and inspectors) is .81, which is significant at the 0.01 level.

Still looking at table 5 we observe that there are two qualities in the principals' column which are not in the inspectors' column and vice versa. These qualities are the ones numbered 21 and 10 for the principals and 38 and 12 for the inspectors. The names of these qualities are:

No. 21: He/She has excellent relations with the teachers and he/she communicates with them on a personal basis.

No. 10: He/She demonstrates with his/her whole attitude and behaviour that he/she respects the teachers' and children's opinions and that he/she trusts them.

The other two qualities appearing in the inspectors' column are:

No. 38: He/She is objective, fair, and responsible, in evaluating the teachers' and children's work.

No. 12: He/She knows very well the school's environment and makes suggestions on the basis of the concrete conditions which prevail in the teacher's work.

It is obvious that the teachers' concern is objectivity and fairness in being evaluated by the inspector, (No. 38) and on the basis of the actual conditions in which they work (No. 12).

This concern is quite natural because teachers' evaluation in Cyprus is the responsibility of the inspectors. Principals have the opportunity to express their opinions about the teachers' work through conferences with the inspectors and - more formally through reports which they submit to the inspectors every two years. But the final evaluation of the teacher's work, which ends up to a numerical mark, is done by a panel of three inspectors.

No wonder then that teachers attach so much importance, to the inspectors' qualities related to evaluation. Their promotion and general professional development depends mostly on this evaluation by the inspectors, so they are expected to be fair, impartial, objective and to bear in mind the actual conditions in which a teacher works.

This concern has always been important for teachers and theorists. Roach (18:1956) found "impartiality" to be one of the fifteen factors which emerged from the analysis he did of all supervisory behaviours. Flanagan (6:1961) found "being fair" as the most frequently mentioned behaviour in twenty-one lists of behaviours expected from leaders. Harris (11.1976) stresses that "supervisors cannot affort to remain aloof from sound teacher evaluation because it offers opportunities to make differensce that count in the lives of both teacher and child". And he goes on saying "an evaluation system that is objective, systematic, collaborative, and on-going, with emphasis on the improvement process, cannot function without the specialised skills and perspectives of supervisors."

Now let us turn to the other qualities which have been highly ranked. The first place both for principals and inspectors was given to quality No. 1, namely: "He/She has an excellent knowledge of and ability on what is relevant to the teaching-learning process." This item received not only the top place in the rank order, but it also received one hundred per cent agreement among all groups of subjects. The complete agreement among teachers is indicative of the great importance given to this quality.

Furthermore, there is a lot of support from the literature on the importance of this item, which means that the teachers of Cyprus think along the same lines as those of many educators in other parts of the world.

Guss (9:1961) in a study "How supervision is perceived", which he conducted among administrators, principals, university faculties, parents, supervisors, and teachers, found that six functions had been mentioned by a majority of respondents. Two of these were: "improving instruction" and "rendering expert advice concerning methods and materials."

Neville (16:1966) wants the supervisor as an authority on teaching, capable of viewing the teaching process from a variety of dimensions, analyzing it, and creating the conditions whereby teachers can study their instructional behaviour.

"The long supported notion that teachers make the critical difference in the lives of children and youth in schools remains unshaken by many years of research on teaching and learning", Harris (11:1976) contends, and urges the supervisors to lead more aggressively in the improvement of instruction.

Zechman (24:1977) in a recent study found that "the principal ought to be emphasizing instructional leadership, competencies in the staff supervison area."

The second in importance (in the common column for principals and inspectors, table 5) is item number 7: "He/She inspires (the teachers in their work with the many positive characteristics of his/her personality and generally with his/her humanistic behaviour."

This item is rather comprehensive, very closely related to items No. 6 (4th-democratic spirit), No. 5 (5th-collaboration), No. 14 (7th encouragement of dialogue), No. 34 (8th-helper), No. 10 (9th-respect and trust), and No. 21 (10th-personal relations and communication).

Apparently all these items belong to one of the two domains, which were earlier mentioned in the review – the human relations domain or the idiographic dimension.

The literature is full of support concerning the importance of these qualities for an effective educational leader.

Going some decades back, we meet Lamont (14:1949) stressing that the educational leader should have a commitment to democratic procedures when working with others and a belief that all human beings possess the power or potentiality of solving their own problems.

More recently many studies concluded that the "consideration" or "people's" domain is very important for the educational leader. Wofford (22:1970) in a "Factor Analysis of Managerial Behaviour Variables" found that "behaviours associated with consideration, employee-centered, interaction-facilitation, support, and personal interaction concepts" were one of the six most important factors in the leaders behaviour.

Klopf and his associates (13:1974) regard as effective educational leader the one who, among others, "facilitates the development of a humanistic climate, includes children, staff, and parents in the development of the school as a total learning environment, and fosters the cooperative interrelationship of school and community."

Abrell (1:1974) underlines the importance of "a deep commitment and capacity to make others feel worthwhile, important, and uplifted" and the ability of "establishing an open, trusting, and collegial relationship." He emphasizes that the humanistic leader should establish the kind of attitude which "reveals a definite preference for asking rather than telling, sharing rather than controlling, and trusting rather than mistrusting." The kind of attitude which enables the leader say to those with whom he/she is working "I accept, trust, and need you as another human being. I need your knowledge, skills, and contributions in order to exist, function, and transend mutual problems."

The two remaining items are the 3rd and 6th, in the rank order (table 5, column for principals and inspectors) namely:

No. 2: He/She plans his/her work at the very beginning of the year, in collaboration with the teachers, hence everybody is aware of his/her objectives, and

No. 4: He/She is enthusiastic in his/her work, he/she works with zeal and regards his/her job as a mission.

Planning is one of the three most important phases of every human enterprise (planning, implementation, evaluation – P.I.E.), and quite correctly the teachers of Cyprus have given this item a very important place in the rank order. The literature is full of arguments supporting the importance of planning ahead and in collaboration with co-workers. Planning and scheduling, with the involvement of all those participating in any activity, is regarded as a fundamental component in the educational process (Abrell, 1:1974, Flanagan, 6:1961).

Enthusiasm and zeal are the qualities which got the 6th place. Again, it seems that the teachers made a good judgement. Enthusiasm has always been regarded as very important for the educational leader. There is a lot of support in the literature that "quality education and effective schools are primary a function of competent administrators, supervisors, and teachers who are internally committed and motivated to work (Likert, 15:1967); educators who have task motivation (Stogdill, 20:1974), who can energize other people (Cunningham, 5:1976) and who have "an enthusiasm for and belief in supervision as a viable process for contributing to human growth and progress" (Abrell, 1:1974).

Bearing in mind the last part of our "review" section, where it was supported that "the most appropriate style of leadership must demonstrate equal concern for people and production or initiative structure and consideration," where do the teachers of Cyprus stand, according to this oppinionnaire?

Although classification of the items is not that easy, if we assume that items No. 1, 2 and 4 belong to the nomothetic dimension and all the rest to the idiographic one, it is quite obvious hat the emphasis is on the second. In other words the teachers of Cyprus attach more importance to the human relations aspect of leadership. They want their principals and inspectors primarily interested in the persons as persons and not as inanimate elements of the big educational enterprise.

This result does not surprise anybody in Cyprus and it may be argued that it was expected, because after the bitter experience teachers as well as all the people of Cyprus have had as a result of the violation of the democratic procedures imposed by the coup d' etat and the strangling of all human rights by the Turkish invading forces in 1974, it is quite natural for the teachers of Cyprus – this very sensitive sector of the population – to which to emphasize the need for democratic and humanistic procedures and to safeguard the dignity of man.

It seems that the teachers of Cyprus are in complete agreement, in this respect, with Klopf and his associates (13:1974) who want the educational leader as "a Renaissance person who has a humanistic commitment to man and child. In this individual may be found an ultimate concern with the dignity and worth of man and an interest in the development of the potential inherent in every person."

(7) SUMMARY—CONCLUSIONS

Leadership is a complex quality and no perfect models or exact criteria are available for its examination and assessment. Which leader will succeed in which situation cannot be easily established. At best, as Thomas (12:1977) puts it "we can understand that leadership is intricately woven into social events and who will lead may depend on skill, time, prayer, and good fortune."

Nevertheless, through the present study, we obtained some interesting clues as to how the teachers of Cyprus perceive their educational leaders. They want them to be excellent instructional leaders (No. 1), very good planners (No. 2) and enthusiastic in their work (No. 4), in other words they want them caring about "results" and "production" (nomothetic dimension). But above all they want them caring about the dignity and personal development of the individual (idiographic dimension). They want them willing collaborators and helpers (No. 5, 21, 34), respecting and trusting teachers, children and parents (No. 10). They want them impartial and fair (No. 38), encouraging the dialogue and a democratic climate (No. 6, 14). Finally, they want them "animateurs", inspiring teachers and all others involved in the educational effort through their humanism and their personality (No. 7).

The emphasis is clear: it is on the "consideration" domain. As it has already been mentioned, this is not surprising. It was to be expected, after the violation of all democratic procedures by the coup d' etat and the subsequent strangling of the dignity and all human rights by the Turkish invasion of July 1974.

Obviously most of the very highly ranked characteristics belong to the personality and attitudinal area. This finding is not new. It is similar to the finding by Roach (18:1956) which made him state: "Since it is generally recognized that personality traits and attitudes are not readily amenable to change, it appears that good selection practices may be more important than training and development. In other words, an ounce of selection may be worth a pound of training. "

That was a 1956 slogan. We now live in the year 1980, i.e. 24 years later. Administration and management science has made quite impressive progress since then. The old issue whether teaching and leadership is an art or a science is not that hot any more. Today it is accepted that both aspects are important. We are now living in an era of synthesis, of a balance between the two aspects, in the same way as "balance" and "equal concern" is the prevailing position, regarding leadership (transactional style, neo-scientific management, equal concern for people and production).

Let us express the strong hope that during the present year, 1980, the balance in Cyprus, disturbed by the Turkish invasion, will be restored, so that both teachers and the people of Cyprus will be able to place their emphasis where it belongs – on an equal concern for both "people" and "production".

REFERENCES

1. Abrell, Ronald L. "The Humanistic Supervisor Enhances Growth and Improves Instruction", *Educational Leadership*, 32:212-216, Dec. 1974.
2. Barnard, Chester. *The Functions of the Executive*. Cambridge, Mass. 1938.
3. Cartwright, D. and Zander, A. (edrs) *Group Dynamics Research and Theory*. Evanston, Ill., 1960.
4. Cawelti, Gordon. "Which Leadership Style - From the Head or Heart?", *Educational Leadership*, 36:374-378, March 1979.
5. Cunningham, L.L. "Educational Leadership: The Curious Blend, *Elucational Leadership*, 33:323-326, February 1976.
6. Flanagan, John C. "Leadership Skills: Their Identification, Development, and Evaluation" in L. Petrullo's and B. Mass's *Leadership and Interpersonal Behaviour*. N.Y.Holt 61.
7. Galfo, Armand J. "Measurement of Group Versus Educational Leaders' Perception of Leadership Style and Administrative Theory Orientation", *Journal of Educational Research*, 68:310-314, April 1975.
8. Getzels, J.W. and Cuba, E.G. "Social Behaviour and the Administrative Process", *School Review*, 65:423-441, 1957.
9. Guss, Carolyn, "How is Supervision Perceived", *Educational Leadership*, 19:99-102, November 1961.
10. Halpin, Andrew. *Theory and Research in Administration*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1966.
11. Harris, Ben M. "Supervisor Competence and Strategies for Improving Instruction", *Educational Leadership*, 33:332-335, February 1976.
12. Kahn, R.L. and Katz, D. "Leadership Practices in Relation to Productivity and Morale" in Cartwright and Zander *Group Dynamics Research and Theory*. Evanston, Ill., 1960.
13. Klopf, Gordon J. and others. "A Taxonomy of Educational Leadership", *The National Elementary Principal*, 53:54-59, July-August 1974.
14. Lamont, Corliss. *The Philosophy of Humanism*. New York: Frederick Vugar Publiship Co., 1949.
15. Likert, Rensis. *The Human Organization: Its Management and Value*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967.
16. Neville, Richard F. "The Supervisor we Need", *Educational Leadership*, 23:634-640, May 1966.
17. Ogilvie, Doug. "Leadership and the High School Deputy Principal", *The Journal of Educational Administration*, 15:93-103, May 1977.
18. Roach, Darrell E. "Factor Analysis of Rated Supervisory Behaviour", *Personnel Psychology*, 9:487-498, 1956.
19. Sergiovanni, Thomas J. "Beyond Human Relations", *Professional Supervision for Professional Teachers*, Washington D.C.: ASCD, 1975.
20. Stogdill, Ralph M. *Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research*. New York: The Free Press, 1974.
21. Thomas, M. Donald. "The Complexities of Educational Leadership", *NASSP Bulletin*, 61:34-40, December 1977.
22. Wofford, J.C. "Factor Analysis of Managerial Behaviour Variables", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 54:169-173, 1970.
23. "Managerial Behaviour, "Situational Factors, and Productivity and Morale", *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 16:10-17, 1971.
24. Zechman, Harry T. "Are Principals Competent in the Instructional Leadership Domain?", *NASSP Bulletin*, 61:21-25, December 1977.

APPENDIX

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. He/She* has an excellent knowledge of and ability on what is relevant to the teaching-learning process.
2. He/She plans his/her work at the very beginning of the year, in collaboration with the teachers, hence everybody is aware of his/her objectives.
3. His/Her plans and objectives are in harmony with the goals, the ambitions, and the general level of the teachers and the people of the community. (They don't deviate from the state's general goals and objectives).
4. He/She is enthusiastic in his/her work, he/she works with zeal, and regards his/her job as a mission.
5. He/She regards him/herself-and behaves-as a collaborator in the whole educational effort.
6. His/Her approach and general behaviour create the necessary climate, wherein a democratic spirit among teachers, pupils and the community in general can develop.
7. He/She inspires the teachers in their work with the many positive characteristics of his/her personality and generally with his/her humanistic behaviour.
8. He/She demonstrates a sincere interest in the progress and welfare of the children.
9. His/Her visits to the classrooms/schools don't cause tension to the teachers.
10. He/She demonstrates with his/her whole attitude and behaviour that he/she respects the teachers' and children's opinions and that he/she trusts them.
11. He/She regards the pleasant atmosphere among teachers and children not as an objective per se, but as a necessary prerequisite for the achievement of children's progress, which is the basic goal of education.
12. He/She knows very well the school's environment and makes suggestions on the basis of the concrete conditions, which prevail in the teacher's work.
13. He/She coordinates all the efforts, from various factors (parents, governmental agents, private institutions etc.), which are interested in the progress of education.
14. He/She encourages a dialogue and discusses with pleasure opinions which are different from his/her own.
15. He/She is ready to differentiate his/her views, when convinced that others are more valid.
16. He/She studies very carefully every change that is to be introduced and the proper preparation is made by the teachers and pupils who are involved.
17. He/She understands the personal problems of the teachers and contributes, where possible, to their solution.
18. His/Her whole behaviour during the visits to the classrooms does not effect negatively the teacher's prestige and the children's respect for their teacher.
19. His/Her frequent presence in the teacher's classroom is helpful and useful.
20. He/She communicates effectively with the teachers by using concrete examples from everyday work, and does not limit him/herself to the theoretical level only.

---

* He/She refers to the principal and inspector.

21. He/She has excellent relations with the teachers and he/she communicates with them on a personal basis.
22. He/She strengthens the self-concept of the teachers and pupils, capitalizing on their positive points, which he/she identifies.
23. He/She acknowledges the contribution of every teacher in the whole effort which the school makes.
24. He/She identifies the leadership competencies of the teachers and he/she encourages their further development.
25. He/She encourages teachers and children to undertake more responsibilities and to use self-evaluation in their everyday work.
26. He/She tries to know the abilities of the teachers very well before he/she suggests any new methods of work.
27. He/She is an agent of new ideas and he/she shelp the teacher, as well as all those effected by their implementation, by strengthening their self-confidence.
28. He/She encourages and reinforces initiatives by teachers, children, parents and other people interested in education.
29. He/She offers opportunities to teachers and children for participation in the decision-making process, on matters which concern them directly.
30. He/She encourages the development of the quality and quantity of cooperation among teachers and children.
31. He/She encourages the teachers for experimentation and research, relevant to the teaching-learning process.
32. He/She offers opportunities for the inservice training of teachers and he/she creates a climate of self-renewal and professional development.
33. He/She supplies to teachers any information facilitating them to acquire books and other teaching materials.
34. He/She is a real collaborator of the teacher, who considers him/her an effective helper in all difficulties of the job.
35. He/She offers concrete help to the teachers in the difficulties they meet in their everyday work.
36. He/She spends considerable time to help in the solution of problems which teachers meet in their work.
37. He/She is the most appropriate person to evaluate the work of the teacher.
38. He/She is objective, fair and responsible whilst evaluating teachers' and children's work.
39. He/She takes into consideration the special conditions under which each teacher and child work, during evaluation.
40. He/She encourages the concept of team evaluation.

RATIONAL CURRICULUM PLANNING FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION IN CYPRUS

Michael Theodorou
Principal
Elementary Education
CYPRUS

Rational curriculum planning, as described in this paper refers to what is practised by the Ministry of Education in Cyprus which deals with the educational affairs of the Greek community of the island. Other Cypriot communities follow their own system of education, the examination of which is beyond the scope of this paper. Consequently all included information must be taken to be applicable to the Greek community of the island only.

Before any detailed examination of the planning model is attempted, it is necessary to provide a working definition of the term 'curriculum' and try to make explicit the meaning which is, attributed to it in the Greek language.

Surprisingly there is no word in the Greek language which corresponds to the meaning of the Latin derivative 'curriculum'. It is thus difficult to provide any definition similar to that existing in the English-speaking world. When the Greeks want to give a definition for curriculum, they use the term 'analytical programme'.

Difficulties in defining curriculum arise not only from the language peculiarity but also from the nature of assumptions underlying Greek thinking about curriculum.

Oliver[1] argues that it is difficult to provide a definition for curriculum since it is by nature a complex procedure to arive at a phrase condensing so many broad meanings. Nevertheless he defines curriculum as all the experiences of children for which the school should accept responsibility. It is the programme used by the school as a means for accomplishing its purpose.

Inlow defines curriculum as 'the planned composite effort of any school to guide pupil learning toward predetermined learning outcomes'[2].

Johnson has a similar definition for curriculum. A structured series of intended learning outcomes[3].

The above three definitions seem to approximate to what the Greek Cypriots mean by curriculum. The first one is compatible with Greek Cypriot thinking because it stresses the responsibility of the school in providing learning experiences for the child. It is in the character and social behaviour of the Greeks to attribute responsibility the school for the all-round development of the child and in turn make the schools accountable for everything that goes wrong in their society. This responsibility was openly discussed after the 1974 coup.

The other two definitions those of Inlow and Johnson, are again in line with Greek Cypriot thinking since they stress the predetermination of learning outcomes. Such a thesis is in strict accord with rational curriculum planning practised at all stages of Greek Cypriot education.

Education in Cyprus is laying stress on definitions which call for designated learning outcomes because of the rationality involved in such definitions. The objective model of planning can easily be matched with the philosophy underlying such definitions. In fact most definitions which emphasise learning outcomes are associated with rational curriculum planning for the operation of such curriculum. A classic example is the definition provided by Hirst which takes curriculum to mean 'a programme of activities designed so that pupils will attain by learning certain specifiable ends or objectives'[4].

Till recently the term 'analytical programme' was used as a synonym for 'curriculum'. Such a programme was confined to an analysis of content in each subject due to be taught in the school during the year. The term 'analytical programme' is retained in the new curriculum for the primary school, now well in its trial stage. But a critical examination of the philosophy underlying the new curriculum will reveal that a more holistic view of school work is adopted in the new scheme. It can be said that the 'curriculum' is taken to mean the 'educational programme' of the school, looked upon in its broad meaning which is comprised of four basic elements.

(a) The programme of studies
(b) The programme of experieces
(c) The programme of services
(d) The hidden curriculum.

If one says to a teacher of a primary school, 'I would like to see your curriculum', the most probable thing is that he will start providing a description of the above four elements.

The programme of studies includes a list of subjects or main topics in the knowledge field offered by the school. In an oversimplified statement this is the content or past human experience and is equated with the school syllabus. Such a syllabus is provided in an outline form and all schools are expected to follow it.

The programme of experiences is seen as a means for vitalizing the curriculum. This is usually that part of the cyrriculum which depends on the individual teacher and the way he organises these experiences for the child's benefit. The schools are, philosophically at least, concerned with the 'total involvement' of the pupils through creating opportunities for leisure, creative expression, communication and intellectual activities. Thus the educational programme seeks to combine the world of books and classroom instruction with the world outside the classroom.

The programme of services includes that area of the curriculum offering service to pupils. It is recognised here that the school bears responsibility for the 'whole child' and not just its intellect. Such items as hygiene, remedial help and individual guidance for integral parts of the curriculum.

The last element, that of hidden cirriculum, is perhaps one fo the most important, because schools in Cyprus are not seen as mere places of instruction but primarily as social institutions. The preservation of culture and religion and the development of future citizens are entrusted to schools which have to devise such a form of curriculum so that they successfully meet this responsibility.

The Greek Cypriot definition of curriculum approximates to what the French, also in a highly centralised system, mean by 'programmes et methodes' – the prescribed content of study – and in addition the educational process (the activities in school). Together these elements add up to what happens in schools as the result of what teachers do. Taken then in its totallity curriculum "may be conceived of as the impact of the school programme and the environment upon the learner"[5].

The nature of rational planning

The concept of rationality has its roots in philosophy. J.S.

Mill thought of rational actions as being actions designed on an ends-means basis. He suggested that we have to think about the ends first and then on their nature devise the means to reach these ends. Rational thinking in Mill's account will be as follows:

(a) Formulate the end, taking into account all relevant values

(b) Formulate the means

(c) Act.

Oakeshott is opposed to the above view of the ends-means concept and claims that we do not look to the ends and then to the means and then act, as Mill suggests. Our ends can only be chosen within already extant ways of behaving i.e. activities. Rational conduct is shown in 'faithfulness to the knowledge we have of how to conduct the specific activity we are engaged in'[6].

Sockett[7] and Skillbeck[8] were also involved in the philosophical debate concerning the relationship between aims and ends. They both share the view that a high degree of analysis of the relationships between means and ends must take place before any rational planning is decided.

In the curriculum literature various alternative names have been used for Rational Curriculum Planning. The 'Objectives Model' of curriculum planning is one usually used. Sometimes the term 'Rational Curriculum Planning by Behavioural Objectives' (RCPBO)[9] is encountered. This term has extensively been used in the Open University Courses on Curriculum and stems from that type of rational planning where objectives are not simply educational objectives but educational objectives in their behavioural form.

One of the basic requirements of rational curriculum planning is the statement of objectives. The ends to be pursued are defined in terms of behavioural objectives and the means for accomplishing these objectives are in turn devised. Hence the term 'objectives model' of planning as a synonym for rational planning.

In curriculum literature the terms aims, goals and objectives are variously used. Aims are usually linked with objectives and taken to be the first step in curriculum planning. Anyone engaged in this sort of planning must first state their intentions and purposes and then choose content, method, activities and evaluation strategy. We can talk about aims of activities and objectives of participants and more precisely we can speak of aims of curriculum, the goals of a course and the objectives of a lesson.

A classic definition for objectives is provided by Tyler:

> One can define an objective with sufficient clarity if one can describe or illustrate the kind of behaviour the student is expected to acquire so that one could recognize such behaviour if he saw it[10].

The term 'intended learning outcome' is used as a synonym for objectives. Gagne define an objective as telling 'what the student will be able to do following the instruction', and such objectives must state 'the expected current outcomes of instruction'[11]. It can be said that while aims express something of the strategy to be followed, specific objectives are tactical in nature, attempting to describe in the clearest terms possible exactly what a student will think, act or feel at the end of a learning experience.

In 1932 Tyler developed the idea of using objectives in designing diagnostic tests in an effort to make such tests more scientific. But it was not until 1949 that he published his book 'Basic Princi-, ples of Curriculum and Instruction' in which he proposed the first scheme for rational curriculum planning in the form it is known today. Minor adjustments have in the meantime been recommended by other curriculum workers, but Tyler's basic model remains unaltered. He recognizes four main elements in planning the curriculum rationally. They may be identified as.

1. Selection and formulation of objectives
2. Deciding about the content
3. Deciding about the learning experiences
4. Evaluation.

Rational Planning in Cyprus

In 1977 the decision for reforming the primary school curriculum was taken by the body of inspectors at their annual Conference. Committees were set up to look at possible reforms in each individual subject and in May 1978 a document was submitted to the ministry suggesting the following plan for curriculum reform.

(a) Definition of curriculum – what we mean by curriculum

273

(b) Factors influencing the curriculum today

(c) Rationale for change

(d) Planning – 1. Characteristics of primary school child-, hood
  2. Aims and objectives
  3. Content, means and activities for its organisation
  4. Methodological suggestions
  5. Evaluation

(e) Procedure to be followed for curriculum reform.

It is noticeable that the planning model suggested is well within Tyler's thinking, although certain modifications to the number of stages appear.

Rational planning becomes explicit in the reform of the Science Curriculum. An expert from Britain, attached to the Ministry of Education advising the Science Committee on the development of a new curriculum, has suggested the use of Kerr's[12] model of rational planning. His philosophy of planning is similar to the one used in the Schools Council's Science 5/13.

The 1979 curriculum reform is a classic example of a rationally planned curriculum on a five-element model. These elements are the following:

A. Situation analysis

This is the first step taken in planning currently used in Cyprus. Analysis of the existing situation is done on a broad basis. There exists at the ministry an Education Council, a body of whose members are drawn from all sectors of Society: unions, professionals, laymen, clergy. During their monthly meetings they discuss education matters and provide advice and recommendations to the ministry officials. In this way there exists an official connection between the policy-makers in education and society. Although, the Council's advice is not binding on the ministry, nevertheless the feelings and attitudes of society become known to the ministry.

The most important role in the situation analysis phase of planning is played by the inspectors. Since every standing committee for curriculum reform is presided over by an inspector and inspectors are always among its members, then it becomes obvious that their opinion on the situation analysis is very influential. Teachers also actively participate in all phases of curriculum reform. From this it becomes clear that decisions on curriculum are taken by educationists and everyone in Cyprus recognizes their right to do so. Perhaps the words of Barbara Bullivant, a NAGM, (U.K) committee member could also be applied to the Cyprus situation. Speaking to a NAGM meeting she said:

> *Teachers rightly resented the butcher, the baker and the candlestic maker having a responsibility when they knew nothing about the curriculum*[13].

B. Aims and objectives

Aims and objectives are clearly stated in all primary school subject curricula. These can be classified into four distinct groups:

(a) Aims derived from culture

(b) Aims derived from knowledge

(c) Aims designed to serve the individual

(d) Aims designed to serve the Cyprus environment.

Aims and objectives are stated in an analytic form so that the teachers make sure that they get the message of the curriculum planners correctly. Such analysis is meant to introduce the teachers into the philosophy of each aim so that they will be able to formulate specific objectives for their teaching.

Objectives in Mathematics, Science and Language are mostly stated in behavioural terms but those in the rest of the curriculum are in a more general form. It seems obvious that although the curriculum committees have initially stated their preference to behavioural objectives, later on they accepted the use of more general objectives in certain problematic areas where behavioural objectives are difficult to formulate.

C. Content and means for its organisation

In this element of rational planning the central guidlines for curriculum content together with means for its organisation are provided. In Cyprus, curriculum is developed under the titles of different subjects or broad groupings of disciplines. The only exception occurs in Cycle A – the lower three years of primary school – where under the title 'Environmental Studies' integration of subjects is attempted. Although the authorities advocate the integration of subjects, this has not yet been achieved to the degree conceived in Britain by the Schools Council.

The organisation of content in Cyprus seems to be similar to the thinking of Hirst[14] and Phenix[15] who argue strongly for the organisation of the curriculum under forms of knowledge or disciplines. The authorities point out that the content provided in the curriculum of various subjects should be taken as a guide and that the teachers are free to analyse and supplement it the way they think fits best their specific environment and the interests of the children.

D. METHODOLOGY

This section of the curriculum includes the methodological principles on which learning experiences could be organised. Suggestions are provided to the teachers as to the possible organisation of content. A good example of such policy is found in the science curriculum where teachers are given advice on the best method for organisation of their teaching material so that (a) discovery interest is stimulated, (b) factual knowledge is acquired, (c) scientific approach is applied and (d) certain desirable attitudes are developed among children.

The teachers are expected to choose their material for teaching from the various subjects suggested in outline form in the curriculum and arrange it around a central theme or topic. But there still remains the obligation of the teachers to teach the basic content suggested in the curriculum.

The planners state that they are not advocates of the principle of 'the one best method' in teaching and stress that the teacher should apply initiative and imagination in his teaching. This refers not merely to teaching techniques such as discovery method or group teaching but also to didactis, that is, handling the content so that it becomes learning.

The guidelines contain suggestive, not prescriptive, comments on the question of methods. The extensiveness of such comments varies from subject to subject but examples appear on every topic.

The new curriculum is an attempt to accommodate the nation of control through inspection with that of advisory service, the idea of prescription of content and its expected coverage with that of freedom of action and progressivism.

The methodology adopted in Cyprus is a mixture of ideas from the Plowden Report blended with much control by the inspectors on matters of selection of content and evaluation. It is a kind of 'conservative progressivism', if such a term could exist.

E. Evaluation

This is the last element in the process of rational planning. In every subject curriculum there appears a section on evaluation. The term 'evaluation' in the curriculum in Cyprus must be taken to mean the assessment of children's performance in relation to the objectives set at the beginning of the course. Thus the teachers are evaluating each child's work separately, the work of the class as a whole and indirectly the work of the class within the school context.

The purpose of the suggestions provided in the evaluation section is to assist teachers in their work. Furthermore, teachers, are given advice on the construction of tests and examples of objective tests are included in every subject curriculum. Using these tests the teachers hope to find out the extent to which the objectives of a course or a lesson have been realised.

Assessment of children's performance is an essential part of curriculum evaluation. But the two processes are not synonymous and obviously they do not mean the same thing. Curriculum evaluation is a much broader term and a more complex process. Nowadays many techniques and approaches to curriculum evaluation are used. Many of these have been developed and tested during the second generation of projects of the current decade. Harlen's formative evaluation in the Schools Council's Science 5/13 project and Macdonald's combination of formative and summative evaluation in the Humanities Project may be cited as examples of the complexity of the process of evaluation. Ideas on evaluation such as the illumination techniques suggested by, Parlett and Hamilton and approaches like those of Stake, Scriven or Afkin have never been applied in Cyprus. The reason may be lack of trained personnel. On the other hand the Ministry of Education does not employ any curriculum evaluators as they are known in Britain. Curriculum evaluation is carried out by inspectors alongside their routine work assisted by specialists in assessment and testing. In a small country like Cyprus one could not expect curriculum evaluation with all its complicated techniques to be full in existence because the process is very demanding in materials and trained manpower.

From what has briefly been said on the big problem of curriculum it becomes obvious that the ministry officials consider the classic objectives model as the most suitable planning model for Cyprus. The clarity in teaching as well as the facilitation it offers in the assessment of pupil and teacher work are some advantages particularly appreciated in Cyprus. Certainly there are drawbacks in the model. But the Cypriot teachers accepted it and nothing resembling Stenhouse's[16] reaction appeared. We must not of course forget that we are just at the starting point of the trial period of the curriculum projects and it could be quite risky to attempt to predict their future.

REFERENCES

1. Oliver, A.I., *Curriculum Improvement*, N. York, Dodd Mead, 1965, pp. 3–16.
2. Inlow, G.M., *The Emergent in Curriculum*, N. York, John Willey, 1966, p. 7.
3. Johnson, M., The Translation of Curriculum into Instruction, in *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, Vol. 1, No. 2 1969, p. 118.
4. Hirst, P.H., *Knowledge and the Curriculum*, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1974, p. 2.
5. Oliver, A.I., *Curriculum Improvement*, N. York, Harper and Row, 1977, pp. 20.
6. Oakeshott, M., *Rationalism in Politics*, London, Methuen, 1962 pp. 101–2.
7. Sockett, H., Curriculum Aims and Objectives: Taking a Means to an End, in *Proceedings of the Philosophy of Education Society of Great Britain*, Vol. VI, No. 1, January 1972.
8. Skilbeck, M., Curriculum Aims and Objectives. Taking a Means to an End (Reply to Hugh Sockett), in *Proceedings of the Philosophy of Education Society of Great Britain*, Vol. VI, No. 1, January 1972.
9. Sockett, H., Approaches to Curriculum Planning I, in *Rationality and Artistry*, Open University E203, Units 16–18, London, Open University Press, 1967, pp. 16–31.
10. Tyler, R.W., *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1949, pp. 59–60.
11. Gagne, R.M., et al., *Principles of Instructional Design*, N. York, Holt Rinehart and Winston, 1974, p. 76.
12. Kerr, J.F., *The Problem of Curriculum Reform*, Leicester University Press, 1976
13. The Times Educational Supplement, *Governors must be involved with the Curriculum*. 30 November, 1973, p. 9.
14. Hirst, P.H., Peters, R.S., The Logic of Education, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1970, Chap. 4.
15. Phenix, P.H., The Disciplines as Curriculum Content, in *Curriculum Crossroads*, Passow, A.H., (ed), N. York, Columbia University Press, 1962.
16. Stenhouse, L., Some limitations of the use of Objectives in Curriculum research and planning, in *Paedagogical Europea*, 6, 1970–71, pp. 73–83.

SELF EVALUATION STRATEGIES FOR SCHOOLS

An interim description of pilot instruments and some initial reactions and problems revealed in their use

Geoffrey Lyons
Anglian Regional Management Centre
August 1979

There is an increasing interest expressed in the evaluation of schools. Self evaluation as a technique, although only one means of evaluation, and posing many problems to issues of evaluation generally debated, has attractiveness.

A working party** of Essex Inspectors and secondary Headteachers, and two members of staff of the Anglian Regional Management Centre, have designed three experimental documents which simplify evaluation processes, give a firm replicable structure to work from, and lend themselves to the school regularly reviewing, its organisational processes.

Initial field reactions give sufficient encouragement to suggest that further development of the pilot instruments will be fruitful.

No claims for originality or uniqueness are being entered in pursuing this work. What has been produced is that which (some) schools are likely to adopt, and probably the 'good schools' are already doing. The issues described are concerned with what practice has revealed. This paper is intended as no more than an interim statement and is presented in a somewhat annotated form.

WHY SELF ASSESSMENT?*

Public interest in the value and effect of education continues to grow. Although results of external examinations retain a strong influence on public attitudes towards secondary schools, the amount of concern now being expressed about other aspects of the work and organisation of schools has increased considerably. Behaviour and pastoral care, educational and careers guidance, class organisation and the quality of leadership are but a few examples. There are strong pressures for more scrutiny and accountability within the system.

---

* This section is taken from the introduction to the documents

In view of current attitudes and the increasing possibility of external assessment of one kind or another, it is important that every school

(i) thinks out clearly what it is trying to do,

(ii) is able to convince others of the effectiveness of the procedures through which it is trying to achieve its aims.

The technique suggested here is intended to assist schools in the process of self assessement by enabling them to

(i) assess the value of existing arrangements and practices,

(ii) determine whether change or additions are needed,

(iii) adjust to new pressures or ideas.

It offers a facility for continuous enquiry and review of a school's strengths, weaknesses, deficiencies, or underdeveloped areas. (the processes advocated here cyclic in nature.)

It encourages a school to seek its own solutions and to implement them.

Its use

(i) indicates that a school recognises as implicit in its task the need for an on-going process of self examination.

(ii) ensures that a school can respond more thoroughly and effectively to outside enquiries about its work,

(iii) enables a school to cater for the needs of its pupils and the wider community it serves.

THE ADVANTAGES OF A SELF ASSESSMENT PROCESS

Self evaluation is merely one method of evaluation and, although, the technique is still in its infancy, there are many advantages in its adoption and use:

Individual teachers will feel less threatened; it can be initiated in any part of a school and also encourage schools to act independently; it is likely to provide a far greater volume of reliable information based on each school's own particular circumstances, than might be otherwise available, and this should help the school to respond to outside enquiries about what it is doing with greater clarity and assuredness.

In itself self assessment is a formative process implicitly incorporating a staff development aspect. It will reveal the need for the involvement of staff in running the school, and is thus more likely to lead to staff working together as a team, better communication between departments, greater understanding and more common purpose. The most effective way of ensuring that this comes about, is to gain the commitment of staff through wide ranging discussion to generate criteria. With such professional responsibility placed in their hands it is hardly likely that staff will act with other than the highest professional integrity. On occasions educationalists outside the school may provide considerable insight into the school's deliberations if the school should choose to involve them. Local authority inspectors/advisers, HMI and other external consultants may all be able to help with specific problems or with issues that the school is attempting to resolve. It is implied here that it is an essential function of the head teacher not to be concerned solely with the day-to-day running of the school but with its development and leading it towards its future tasks. It is self evident that no head teacher can assume such a role without being able to assess the stage of development that his school has reached.

It is likely that self assessment will promote or key into a continuous process of development. Since those who evaluate have to carry the process through to a conclusion, it will undoubtedly lead to a greater commitment by staff to solve the problems they have identified, reinforcing the need to act. When schools and staff discover for themselves their own strengths and weaknesses they are more likely to be susceptible to change.

THE PROPOSED SELF ASSESSMENT PROCESS

This set of documents, produced as exemplars, offers a school a simple orientation to assess the effectiveness of different aepects of its work. (There is, in addition, a more general introductory or preliminary enquiry). The basic process and the format of the questions are essentially the same throughout, with minor variations according to the topics selected. The process can be applied generally to topics other than those included here and thus presents a template for the investigation of a wide range of matters.

The intention is to offer a school a process through which the assessment of the various aspects of its work and organisation can be carried out; one that will enable it, for example, to review its Aims and Objectives, its Staff Development Programme, its Careers Education and Guidance Programme and so forth. The enquiries and discussions which result from the application of the process will identify the issues, problems, areas, details, on which decisions or actions may need to be taken.

Each document deals with one particular topic set out in stages. Each stage includes key questions and presents suggested examples and evidence which will allow the key questions to be answered. The determining of whether an aspect of work thus being scrutinised is at an acceptable level or not, is the school's own. Additionally, sets of questions are appended to each document (excluding the preliminary enquiry). These are intended to draw the school's attention to those aspects of the topic which are likely to be of general concern, and which should be considered before any review of existing arrangements is undertaken. The questions are not meant to present an exhaustive list and schools should add other questions which are more appropriate to their particular requirements.

Although the documents can be worked through by an individual, the real benefit will accrue from whole staff or group involvement. To ensure the most effective use of the documents it is advisable to induct staff into the procedure; to gain their goodwill, their co-operation, their belief that the process will result in action, and their commitment to it. The Preliminary Enquiry should be regarded as an important pre-requisite to this, and it is assumed here that a school will begin the self assessment process by using the Preliminary Enquiry. It may well be the case that there are schools that have already undertaken a similar type of preliminary exercise, particularly through the use of an in-service training day, and they may wish from the outset to turn to the other documents which deal more specifically with aspects of the school's work. There is, of course, no reason why they should not do this.

FACTORS AFFECTING THE PROCESS OF SELF ASSESSMENT

Attitudes

The process is not intended to produce complacency, to introduce divisiveness or to increase introspection, but to be positive, constructive, forward looking, and to develop confidence and assuredness.

There is a need for openness, for a co-operative approach and common aims and aspirations.

Used constructively the process should benefit everyone through increased awareness, efficiency and planning.

Time

The process can be used for quick, cursory assessments or reviews, or in a more detailed and protracted way.

The more thorough the exercise the better the results and the effects.

Priorities

After completing the Preliminary Enquiry schools will have to determine which aspects of their work need attention and decide on priorities

When a particular aspect has been assessed action may again depend upon establishing priorities, and on resources.

Subjectivity

Objective criteria will not necessarily exist for helping to determine the value or quality of what a school wishes to do. Examples from existing practice can, however, be used as indicators, and some are included on the process sheets. Schools should seek out and add others which will be of particular relevance to their own unique requirements.

Aims and Objectives

The process of self evaluation can only be meaningful if the proposals or plans that emerge fit defined aims and objectives. It follows, therefore, that a school must be clear as to what are its aims and objectives.

SOME DISADVANTAGES OF SELF ASSESSMENT

Whilst arguing that a school should be encouraged to assess itself, and some of the advantages have been outlined above, it cannot be denied that disadvantages exist in the very nature of self assessment. For example :-

A considerable amount of teacher time is involved, for all levels of staff. It can prove a slow process, and it can become a burden added to the existing workloads of staff already over committed.

There is always the likelihood in any self administered evaluation process of an irrational reaction being allowed to override objectivity, that staff might stick to the form rather than to the spirit of the intention, or, that key aspects of a school's activities might be omitted from analysis. Self evaluation done badly might increase complacency, be divisive amongst staff, increase introspection, all of which run counter to the real aims of self assessment. It might also fail to satisfy pressures from outside for 'accountability', unless of course some way could be found of giving comparability to the information produced by a school, which may well run counter to the "philosophy" of self assessment. Problems of role, authority and the involvement of staff in the decision making process may initially also cause problems in some schools. Ambiguity exists to some extent in precisely what self assessment actually means as well as for whom it is being undertaken, it can, for example, prove difficult to demonstrate to a sceptical staff the benefits which will accrue to the children from the use of the process, or that it isn't a backdoor inspection, and so forth. It is difficult in the short term to show what are the real costs, or if there are any side effects. What the advantages or disadvantages may be in the long run will of course only emerge over time. Self evaluation is what schools should be doing anyway, it is merely one technique of evaluation, it should not be thought of as a substitute for other modes of evaluation.

Many of the factors indicated above will of course be resolved through a wider and more systematic use of the process. However fairly substantial issues do arise about the generation of criteria – upon which assessment can be based, and about issues concerned with correctly identifying the underlying causes of problems and not dealing with their symptoms.

It seems self evident to point out that staff must accept and internalise the criteria which are to be used for any attempt to impose them from outside may become counter productive. The criteria generated must be in harmony with the school's aims and objectives and not antithetical to its values. The most effective way of ensuring this comes about is to gain the commitment of staff through wide ranging discussion of the issues of concern in their school.

A substantial amount of work concerned with the issues of self evaluation exists in the U.S.A. and is freely available. I would particularly draw to your attention work carried out in three areas:- by the National School Evaluation, by Skinner from the University of San Francisco, and that of the Competency movement ably argued by Lloyd McCleary, all in their different ways provide fairly substantial orientations.*

THE PILOT DOCUMENTS PRODUCED

The documents produced allow the school a simple orientation to assess the effectiveness of different aspects of its work. The three topics presented are provided as exemplars. The format of the documents sets out key questions and presents suggested examples and evidence which would allow the key question(s) to be, answered. The determination of whether or not an aspect of work thus being scrutinised is at an acceptable or unacceptable level, is the schools own: evidence must be presented to satisfy the question asked.

Whilst it is possible for a Head Teacher to sit in his study and work his way through these documents – assessing his school – it seems far more meaningful to involve the staff in the assessment procedures from the outset. He will certainly need to seek information from them, ask for their help in implementing certain procedures, and so forth, in order to maximise the use of the documents. How he involves his staff will depend upon the Head Teacher concerned, his school, and upon his management style.

---

* see LYONS G Evaluation of American Schools. What we can learn from the experiences and the processes developed there. Education forthcoming. I do no more than argue that it is necessary to start somewhere, and there is a wealth of experience of one sort or another available if the desire to use it can be generated.

To maximise the effectiveness of the self assessment documents it is necessary to induct staff into the procedure; to gain their goodwill, their co-operation, their belief in the effectiveness of the process and their commitment to it. It is also essential to follow the simple instructions given.

The preliminary enquiry.

It became very obvious that there was a need for a document which would help a school with the issues and problems involved the first time it undertook the formal self evaluation exercise: it helps to induct or socialize staff into the process. This document (document 1) became known as the Preliminary Enquiry.

This document fulfils a number a functions:-

> It attunes staff to the scope and type of enquiry intended, and gains their commitment to the procedure;
>
> it begins to generate criteria upon which self assessment can be based;
>
> it begins to generate information upon which a judgment will be based;
>
> as well as suggesting channels by which information should be collected in order to make a judgment;
>
> by allowing a wide ranging discussion on all aspects of the school's work it enables a more rapid focus to be made onto areas of subsequent concern;
>
> it provides the essential information which expedites the use of the other documents;
>
> one of the clearest features to emerge from the preliminary enquiry is the need for (most) schools to update the statement to their aims and objectives.

It is of interest that this document has subsequently generated a life of its own, as it were. It is an extremely simple, rapid and effective way of taking the 'temperature' of the school. It also forms an invaluable structure to an inservice training day.

A process for reviewing Aims & Objectives, and a process for reviewing Staff Development.

These two documents adopt a common format and are provided as examplars. One of them relates to a review of the schools staff development programme, the other to reviewing the schools aims and objectives. They are directed towards the Head and senior staff and are concerned with asking sets of key questions relating to ascertaining (a) the need for the school to review the particular aspect of organisation under scrutiny, and (b) to provide a comprehensive set of questions which the school must convincingly answer before it can determine the answers to questions raised under (a) above. The ability on the schools part to provide convincing information to satisfy the questions raised, thus provides the answer to whether or not the school needs to review, in whole or in part, the aspect of the organisation being examined. The decision is thus the school's own.

The intention is that the documents provide a framework easily replicated for most aspects of a school's organisation – the schools can produce their own documents, using the models provided. It is also intended that the use of the documents is cyclical in nature, thus all aspects of the school's organisation are regularly reviewed.

Some of the reasons for and against self assessment have been outlined above, and the advantages to follow from a self assessment process, particularly in the current economic and ideological climate, have been discussed. It has been argued that regular self assessment is what schools should be doing anyway, the pilot documents produced provide a format to facilitate this.—The reactions to initial piloting suggest that further development of the documents will be a worthwhile activity.

Those involved in the working party

Colin Bower – Chief County Inspector, Essex County Coucnil
R.E. Ford – Head teacher, Chalvedon School, E.C.C.
G. Fry – Head teacher, St. Chad's School, E.C.C.
R. Henderson – lately Head teacher, Wilson Marriage School, E.C.C.
D. King – Head teacher, Clacton Colbyns School, E.C.C.
R. Lumb – Principal County Inspector, E.C.C.
G. Lyons – Principal Lecturer, Anglian Regional Management Centre
G. Rose – Professor, New York University, visiting fellow A.R.M.C.

THE PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Dr. R. Brayne
Coordinator
North Vancouver
School District
CANADA

I. INTRODUCTION

There is a substantial body of evidence (e.g. Lawrence, 1974; Berman and McLaughlin, 1975; Fullan and Pomfret, 1976; Emrick, 1977) that suggests professional development planners take the requirements, preferences, and needs of teacher clients as the starting point for professional development activities. Accordingly, the most commonly used process for the definition of professional development objectives is the carrying out of a formal needs assessment. A formal needs assessment involves the administration of a survey instrument containing a number of potential needs to a group of teachers. The expectation for respondents is that they react to potential needs in terms of the intensity of their desire to satisfy these needs through in-service training.. The highest ranked needs then define the focal points for the professional development program.

On the basis of the needs assessment, learning experiences are, presented to teachers by what professional development people term delivery systems. These delivery systems are various and include: out-of-school school workshops, conferences, seminars, presentations, demonstrations or discussions; on-site consultative assistance by supervisory personnel or resource people; visits to and observation of other classrooms or schools, and independent research or reading. The expectation is that teachers incorporate in-service acquired skills and knowledge into their own classrooms.

Intensive evaluation of professional development programs (e.g. Joyce, 1976; Fullan, 1979; Fullan and Pomfret, 1977; Howey and Joyce, 1979) show that many of these well-intentioned programs fail in one essential respect. They are largely unsuccessful in bringing about significant transfer of newly acquired skills and knowledge into the classrooms. Goodland and Klein (1970) for example, carried out extensive observation in 150 schools and concluded that despite the magnitude of highly visible and well-funded educational innovations such as team teaching, individualization of instruction, and discovery learning the traditional graded school with its commitment to grades, large group instruction, lower order objectives, and convergent instructional activities tend to dominate the educational scene.

The conditions contributing to the disappointing effects of professional development are programs as varied as they are complex, and some will be described in the next section of this paper. Attending to these conditions will be, in my opition, a major leadership imperative for the principal of the 1980's. Some general strategies for confronting these conditions will be described in the paper's final section.

II. CONDITIONS

Needs Assessment

The first set of conditions inhibiting the transfer of in-service acquired skills to the classroom relate to assumptions in-service planners make regarding how teachers respond to needs assessments. Urick, Pendergast, and Hillman (1979) observed that in-service planners frequently assume that teachers respond to items of a needs assessment on the basis of: a realistic evaluation of their willingness to change their present practices in the direction implied by the needs assessment: a strong conviction that personal improvement in a highly ranked need will lead to improved performance and more favourable attitudes in their students; and a sense of urgency to develop or acquire the new skill(s) implied in the highly ranked items. These assumptions are often untenable and represent conditions that must be satisfied before any changes in the classroom are to result from expensive and in-depth training in highly ranked need areas.

Arends, Hersh, and Turner (1979) noted that teachers responding to a needs assessment often do so as a represntative of teachers as a group rather than as an individual self, rationalizing that teachers at large apparently need instruction in a particular topic even though "I" don't. This response often invalidates three assumptions listed above and decreases the probability of in-service, programs based on needs assessments influencing classroom behaviour.

Results of needs assessments do not differentiate between what are perceived needs of respondents and what are felt needs. The comparison of needs assessment results of different samples of respondents show remarkable similarities. As an example, the North Vancouver School District administered a formal needs assessment to its 1000 teachers in 1977 (Brayne, 1977) and the results were quite predictable. The high ranked needs were: acquiring more skills in motivating students to learn; instructtional ways of enhancing student self concept, creating classroom environments conducive to learning; acquiring ways of formally and informally diagnosing student learning difficulties; and acquiring instructional strategies that provide for intellectual and motivational differences among students. Arends, Hersh, and Turner (1979) submit that the results of many needs assessments are a consequence of what respondents thick should be skills or knowledge to be acquired rather than skills or knowledge they personally feel they must acquire. A response based on perceived need does not provide the necessary readiness or commitment to acquire, develop and use these skills.

The Classroom Reality

A college dean, in an address to incoming education students, observed that the difference between a teacher and a dentist was that when a dentist worked on one tooth the remaining teeth stayed quite still and quiet.

A second set of factors inhibiting the transfer of in-service learnings to the classroom relates to the realities of the classroom. Joyce (1976) succinctly observed that the life of the classroom teacher is a threat to his or her mental health even when events are running smoothly and to innovate in such a place is to court disaster. For emphasis, Joyce (1976) noted that teachers are second only to air traffic controllers in terms of the number of different stimuli they receive in a work shift. Blumberg (1974) concluded that a teacher's decisions and actions centre almost solely on the exigencies of classroom life. These exigencies - class size, student misbehaviour, time and other practical considerations dampen the teacher's resolve to experiment with or field test newly acquired skills or knowledge picked up in the usually supportive and introspective atmosphere of the workshop or seminar.

The willingness to innovate, test, and experiment in the classroom is a prerequisite for adopting in-service learnings in the classroom. This willingness is what Ashley Montague (Coleman,, 1977) called "the spirit of inquisitiveness and playfulness." Howey and Joyce (1979) advised that the increasing expectations attached to the teaching role and deteriorating conditions in many schools serve do dampen this "spirit of inquisitineness and playfulness." Evidence of this dampening is found in the attention educational journals now give to the topic of teacher stress. Findings of these studies show many teachers to be developing acute symptoms on role stress brought on by role expectation overload. It is not surprising that teachers feel a reluctance to undertake the additional demands of testing new skills in their classrooms.

Organizational and Structural Constraints

Young (1979) observed that teachers, by tradition, training, and the requirements of their role are oriented toward their own classrooms. Lortie's (1975) interviews with teachers suggest that people who enter teaching do so, in part because they are favourably disposed to this classroom orientation and because they feel that teaching will make limited demands on their time outside the classroom. Young (1979) suggests that either motivation will result in teachers who are unlikely to embrace new responsibilities. The organizational and social arrangements in schools have reinforced this limited view of the teaching role. The teacher's predisposition against role expansion and the organizational reinforcement of this predisposition are problematic in achieving professional development objectives in that the adoption of new classroom teaching practices requires that teachers loosen their traditional ties with their own classrooms. Education cannot, as Arends, Hersh, and Turner (1979) noted, be improved by simply upgrading the individual components of schools. Adoption of new and better practices requires that teachers work collaboratively to look at the efficacy of what they do in their own classrooms in relation to the school's goals. Like the concept of "critical mass" in nuclear physics, significant change (adoption of new classroom practices) will result only when enough particles (teachers) come together at the same time in a similar high state of energy (commitment). The traditional organizational structural and social characteristics of schools are clearly not conducive to the development of critical mass.

Organizational development (OD) specialists tell us that school improvement, which is, in the final analysis, the essential and elusive goal of professional development, cannot be accomplished by the "front end" teacher individualized in-service activities alone. It cannot be accomplished without attention to the character or fabric of the school's organization (e.g. Miles, 1964; Sarason, 1971; Schmuck, Runkel, Arents, and Arends, 1977). The most successful change efforts – efforts that result in dramatic changes in classroom interaction patterns and instructional methods, are those that aim toward helping teachers in schools come together to identify problems collaboratively, share ownership of problems and needs, plan jointly, and collaboratively develop instructional priorities and programs.

Many educational planners have deflected their planning energies from individual teacher need in-service (professional development) to school based in-service. This school based in-service may be termed staff development and it is in the processes and procedures of staff development that the critical role of the school principal emerges.

III. THE PRINCIPAL AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Staff development is the necessary link between professional development (in-service) and the adoption of newly acquired skills and knowledge in the classroom. Ideally, staff development is: the process that transforms the perceived needs of the needs assessment to the felt needs necessary for adoption; the process that renews classroom teachers' dampened "spirits of playfulness and inquisitiveness"; and the process that reduces organizational and structural constraints to change. The principal's role in professional development is minimal but the principal's role in staff development is critical.

The literature on implementation strategies, innovation, and change processes provide a point of departure for a discussion of the principals' role in staff development. Some pertinent findings in the literature include:

1. The nature of the school setting – particularly the school's climate is a major factor influencing the outcomes of change programs (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975).
2. The impact of leadership style on school functioning and climate is critical (e.g. Bowers and Seashore, 1966; Likert, 1961; 1976; Halpin, 1967).

3. The motivation of teachers to change their present practices is a major factor influencing the outcomes of change programs (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975).
4. Teachers' motivation to change stems from the teachers' involvement with the goals of the school which, in turn, derives from their identification with the school (Likert, 1976; Katz and Kahn, 1966).
5. Teachers' acceptance of school goals depends upon the value of the goal to the individual and the perceived probability of success in achieving that goal (Locke, 1968).

Schmuck (1979), in describing the need for urban school renewal, suggested process consultation as a general strategy for applying findings such as those described above. Process consultation aims at improving group and intergroup procedures used by teachers to arrive at educational decisions and to solve their problems. Principals applying strategies of process consultation do so by dealing with patterns of communication, leadership style, hidden agendas and other underlying tensions, decision making and problem solving procedures, goal setting, translating general and ambiguous goals into specific and achievalbe operational objectives or targets, organizational diagnosis, and program evaluation.

The attitude of the school administrator toward process consultation is, according to McLaughlin and Marsh's (1978) analysis of RAND Corporation change agent data, critical as a signal to teachers as to how seriously they should take efforts at school improvement. The more principals viewed their schools as systems of interdependent roles and priorities with common concerns to address as opposed to collections of individual teachers with unique classroom concerns and training needs, the more they were able to galvanize the staff toward the adoption of innovative procedures. This is what Urick, Pendergast, and Hillman (1979) termed the "team building" dimension of leadership – leadership behaviours that encourage teachers to establish joint ownership of issues and collaboratively develop strategies to address them.

Fullan (1979) indicated that, for the most part, school staffs lack the skills of cooperative decision making and collaborative problem solving. A first step is developing such skills in the school through training and encouragement. An essential role for principals in staff development is to identify recommended proce-, dures for group problem solving and decision making (e.g. Johnson and Johnson, 1975; Schmuck, Runkel, Arends, and Arends, 1977) and encourage and model use of these procedures. A staff that functions effectively is one that can make good sound decisions and principals should help staffs develop the communication skills – checking for understanding, resolving conflict, and achieving consensus, necessary for productive group functioning.

Locke's (1968) finding that increased goal specificity increases performance by providing clear direction for teachers' professional development efforts imply another critical role for the principal in staff development. A teacher in a workshop in North Vancouver once commented sardonically that "if you've seen one school's goals you've seen them all." He was correct in the sense that most school goals are general and non-controversial and no basis exists for relating the goal to possible action by the school.

General goals should be broken down into specific, observable, and achievable objectives. The principal's leadership in this task is critical. This is what Franklin, Wissler, and Spencer (1977) term the "goal emphasis" dimension of leadership.

In summary, the leadership behaviours of the principal appropriate to the staff development function are: setting specific goals, helping the staff, as a group, proceed toward goals; providing necessary support and resources to accomplish goals; improve the stability and problem solving procedures of the staff; and ensure dividual teacher satisfaction in the group. These are all leadership skills that can be acquired and the use of those skills is a leadership imperative for principals of the 1980's.

REFERENCES

Arends, R., Hersh R. and Turner, J. "In-Service Education and the Six O'Clock News". *Theory into Practice.* June 1978. Vol. XVII No. 3. 196–205.

Berman, P., McLaughlin, M. *Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. IV: The Findings in Review.* Santa Monica, California: Rand Corporation 1975.

Blumberg, A. *Supervisors and Teachers: A Private Cold War.* Berkeley, California: McCutcheon Publishing, 1974.

Bowers, D.G., and Seashore, S.E. "Predicting Organizational Effectiveness with a Four-Factor Theory of Leadership". *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 1966, 11(2), 238-263.

Brayne, R. "Summary Statistics of Professional Development Needs: North Vancouver School District." Mimeo, 1977.

Coleman, D. "Don't be Adultish". *Psychology Today.* August 1977, Vol. 11, No. 3.

Emrick, J. "A Synthesis of Findings Across Five Recent Studies of Educational Dissemination and Change". Mimeo, 1977.

Franklin, J. L., Wissler, A.L., and Spencer, G.J. *Survey Guided Development III: A Manual for Concepts Training*. La Jolla, California: University Associates Inc. 1977.

Fullan, M., and Pomfret, A. "Research on Curriculum and Instruction Implementation". *Review of Educational Research*. Winter 1977. Vol. 47. 335-397.

Fullan, M. "School Focused In-Service in Canada". Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. Mimeo, 1979.

Goodlad, J., and Klein, M. *Behind the Classroom Door*. Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones 1970.

Howey, K., and Joyce, B. "A Data Base for Future Direction in In-Service Education". *Theory into Practice*. June 1978. Vol. XVII, No. 3. 206-211.

Johnson, D., and Johnson, F. *Joining Together: Group Theory and Skills*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall 1975.

Joyce, B. "In-Service: New Perspectives on an Old Term". Paper Presented to Symposium on *In Service: A Means of Progress in Tough Times*. Simon Fraser University. May 1979.

Joyce, B. *In-Service Teacher Education:* Stanford: Centre for Research and Development in Teaching, 1976.

Katz, D., and Kahn, R.L. *The Social Psychology of Organizations*. New York: Wiley, 1966.

Lawrence, G. "Patterns of Effective In-Service Education". Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida. 1974.

Likert, R. *New Patterns of Management*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1961.

Likert, R. *New Ways of Managing Conflict*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1976.

Locke, E.A. "Toward a Theory of Task Motivation and Incentives". *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 1968, 3, 159–189.

Lortie, D. *Schoolteacher*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975.

McLaughlin, M., and Marsh, D. "Staff Development and School Change". *Teachers College Record*, September 1978. Vol. 80, No, 1 69–94.

Miles, M. *Innovation in Education*. New York: Teachers College Press 1964.

Sarason, S.B., *The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc. 1971.

Schmuck, R., Runkel, P., Arends, J., and Arends, R. *The Second Handbook of Organizational Development in Schools*. Palo Alto, California: Mayfield Publishing Company, 1977.

Schmuck, R. "Facilitating School Renewal: The Role of Process Consultation". *Theory into Practice*. April 1979. Vol. XVIII. No. 2. 59–64.

Urick, R., Pendergast, D., and Hillman, S. "Developing a Conceptual Framework for Awareness, Readiness, and Commitment." Paper presented Annual Meeting of AERS. San Francisco, 1979.

CONFERENCE SUMMARY

Prof. Mereddydd Hughes
University of Birmingham

I think that Duncel Griffiths made some suitable remark about the introduction to this talk the other morning. I'm afraid we just cannot live upto that kind of build up. Certainly the bit about my being in a good position to put things in a pithy manner. I think you may feel before I finish that its a pity that I didn't have more time to make it shorter, but we do have these occasions when somebody, some poor unfortunate person is supposed to look at the whole conference and I'm afraid this is something which all of us will try to put up with. In fact I think you may remember at the beginning of the conference, if you can remember that far back that it was Robin who happened to mention in introducing Andreas Anastasiades that he was an old student of mine. I feel the situation has very much reversed this afternoon. My former pupil gave me some homework to do and he gave me a very clear deadline as to when the homework had to be prepared and I feel the last couple of days I have been busy wondering how well will I not meet that deadline and probably I'm the only person in the room who has read in detail all the papers of the conference including the ten yesterday. You could have possibly been present for all the ten optional papers yesterday, but I have read them all. I only finished my summarizing of the last one about 10 minutes before you were due to arrive here.

Unfortunately I havent had the time to re-read what I have written, so I'm wondering whether I shall be able to understand my own scribble and whether if I can understand it, it will make sense to me, let alone make sense to you so I must claim a certain amount of indulgence here. While I'm making a personal comment, perhaps I may just indulge in one further comment as this is the lecture of the whole conference. I was in Nigeria for the autumn term that is from October to December 1975 and when I arrived home for Christmas, I found a Christmas card from Cyprus, from Andreas Anastasiades, a student of mine, as I have mentioned before. We had been somewhat worried about him, knowing the difficulties that have risen, when he returned to Cyprus the previous year and it was a great thrill to receive that card. I immediately sent a card back to Cyprus. As I'd just been for three months in Nigeria, I wrote on the back of the Christmas card "The Nigerians are going to establish an Education Administration Society, what about Cyprus?" Like a shot, within a few days a reply came from Andreas Anastasiades. It was a very short reply. As far as I remember, all it said was: "how do we go about it?"..And I have a feeling that our being here to-day is the results of the very fine way in which Andreas and others in Cyprus have been going about it since that time just over four years ago. There have been tremendous trials in that time. The British Education Administration Society of which I now have the honour to be the chairman has in fact taken a considerable interest in this development and I know that the previous chairman, Peter Browning would particularly have liked to be here because he has been much involved in various exchanges – which those from Cyprus will know have been taking place during the last three or four years. I'm personally very sorry that Peter wasn't also able to be here. But he wanted me to send his greeting to the Cyprus Education Administration Society. It also gives me very great pleasure, now hogging the opportunity that I have, to send you also the very warm greetings of the British Education Administration Society. I shall be reporting to our Council Meeting on this meeting in February. I know that they will want to be assured that I have passed on their greetings to you.

Well, now, with that introduction you may feel it is high time for me to start what I've got to say particularly as I've warned you that it will take just a little time. And the pattern that I would like to use in what I've got to say to you is to say something out of each of the main papers that have been given at this conference. I'm sure you want me to do more than say what a fine paper that was, so I may ride one or two hobby horses of my own, which you may take with variying amounts of seriousness. I think that it may be perhaps a good think for you and for me if I just stop for a while and give you an opportunity of responding just for a few minutes to anything which you may feel that I have said that is particularly outrageous. On the other hand there may be some hobby horse that you forgot or you thought of after a particular occasion, that you would like to have mentioned if you had thought of it at the time. Well with the Chairman's indulgence – so long as there aren't too many such hobby horses galloping off in too many directions all at the same time. Then when I've got my breath back I will come into the whole by refering very briefly to the ten papers, eight of which you will probably know very little about, but there will be two of them you were present at yesterday. I think I'd better put my watch at the side so that I do not take too long and that you do get to the dinner at 8 o'clock to-night.

Let me begin then. I will leave out any reference to the introductory session. I think Robin has certainly looked after that aspect on our behalf in a way that we will all be proud of in the society. Let me come immediately to Andreas Anastasiades' paper. He gave us some very useful background to the position with regard to the school of management in Cyprus. Andreas will not expect me and you will not expect me to go to detail into his paper commenting on the historical development. You will remember, leaving aside the earlier part the 20s and 30s, the gradual increase in control by the central authority, with separate school systems for Greek and Turkish Cypriot communities, but interestingly with the education of teachers organized on an inter-communal basis and I reflected that what a missed opportunity that in those days when one power Britain was responsible for the total system, that the language of the one community was not taught in the schools of the other. If that had happened, during that time when Britain could have done something about that, it might have been a great help in avoiding some of the things that have happened since then. Then jumping somewhat, because we'll inevitably be somewhat idiosincratic – the choice of things to which I will specifically refer to – After independence in 1959, the two separate communal changes took over responsibility of all, educational, cultural and teaching matters, so that again you have a complete cut between two systems. Again it makes one reflect upon the terrific importance of this educational enterprise in which you and I are concerned – the great effect that can occur from decisions made on educational matters. 1963, 1964 are the significant dates in the separation of the two communities. A new ministry of Education being established by the Government in 1965. We've learnt in the system developed, that opportunities, promotion for teachers are limited with the consequent effect on their moral and this is the matter which in discussion following Andreas' address we considered further and widened the context of our discussion. You may remember that we discussed various possibilities of jobs, the appointment of master teachers and others ways of improving staff moral. The system was still somewhat centralized and this again has been one of the threats that has gone through this conference – this question of the centralization, of the educational systems. Decision-making on matters of importance coming from the top. One senses that in Cyprus, that the inspectors are very important people and I know that they would genuinely like to see the school principals showing more initiative and showing more decisiveness as leaders. But somehow here, there is bound to be something of a dilema because of the importance of the centralizing forces in the system. Perhaps it is not surprising that the heads of schools do not show the kind of vigorous leadership which might be expected in a situation in which they felt secure of having a wide measure of autonomy in their work and again this is a matter which on a number of occasions and in a number of contexts has come up in this conference.. If I may just make a reference to some of that research work in which I was involved on the secondary school head. When I came to this point in looking at Andreas' paper I immediately remembered the material with which I was dealing in a very different view case situation where heads are supposed to have so much more autonomy that perhaps, heads, school principles have in the Cyprus situation and if I may quote a few sentences from a report, which I made on that research in Britain. I reported that in my study, that in terms of expectation and of behaviour the head's position is less recognized by external authority, takes less initiative in defining staff responsibility and delegates less readily, is less likely to supervise staff closely, is less likely to insist on deadlines or to emphasize efficiency. A person who feels that his authority is limited or uncertain or that he is under-powered and in relation to his responsibilities is naturally on the defensive So I would say to those inspectors who reported by Andreas as being disappointed that sometimes the heads do not take the initiative which they might hope that they would be willing to take. Perhaps that they might be just that little bit more sympathetic to the constrants which the actual situation applies to them in that situation. Again its so difficult when one is in the superordinate position to realize the inhibitions of those who are in a subordinate position. Again if I may mention a bit of personal experience when I ceased being a head-master myself, I occasionally visited schools where I'd previously been the boss of the show. I thought I'd been a very enlightened boss and very open to everybody and people could come and talk to me about this, that and the other, but there are quite a lot of things which I learnt about that school, when I had ceased being head of that school and members of staff previously wouldn't have said things to me or even felt free to give me some of the background information of why certain things happened or why somebody would take some particular attitude, things which were in interelationship of the person in authority, with the person under-authority. And that experience in my own life has made me much more conscious of this particular issue. I suggest to all of you – you are all people in authority in education. It's sound to occasionally remind yourself of that rather obvious factor in all the text books and in all the books, but sometimes its very easy to forget that there is this sort of effect on subordinates, so what you may regard as matter of consulting your subordinates, perceived by the subordinates as you pretty well telling them what is going to happen and daring them to disagree with you. I told you that I would perhaps ride on the two hobby horses, well perhaps some of you will want to start counting because that probably is one of them. Let me hurry up. On the paintful and tragic issue of the communal separation in Cyprus, I think there is one story which I would like to share with the conference. The story was told to me by Mr. Humphreys the Englishman who is head of the English School and it was at a luncheon at the High Commissioner the other day that this story was told to me. I asked him about the composition of the pupils in the school and he told me of course that the great majority were Greek Cypriot children, but he mentioned that there was one Turkish boy in the school as well and when I expressed interest this exceptional situation, my interest encouraged him to tell me how this had come about and this briefly is the story as I understand it. This boy's home is in an outlying area away from Nicosia and was from other Turkish Cypriot homes and inevitably there was some damage to the home of that Cypriot family at that time and after the troubles had subsided. The local Greek Cypriot community was extremely unhappy at what had happened in relation to the home of this Cypriot family, which had lived in their midst for a long time and they worked together to restore and to rebuild what had been damaged – not only that, but they collected together to pay the fees for the only son of that Cypriot house-hold so that he could go to the English School in Nicosia and that's why he is still in that school to-day and his fees are still being paid for by the Greek Cypriot community in which that family lives. Even though we hear a lot of bad stories about things which have happened in the world, but I find myself very moved by that particular story so that when my Greek Cypriot friends have been telling me that whatever terrible things may have happened, they don't feel bitterness towards the Turkish Cypriot people in Cyprus. A story like that helps me to understand that there must be a great deal of truth in what they are saying. And it also makes me wonder, as we all come from different parts of the world, would we in similar circumstances act in the same way. It's this kind of king that you might perhaps consider about. In the long term there is surely some hope and it was of interest to hear of the word being done by the Foreing Minister and his colleagues to seek such an outcome. It due course there is some hope surely that a new democratic system of education, which will be a single system, if not a single system, a closely inter-related system will be available for the shole island which would help the young generation and here I'm quoting the last paragraph of Andreas' own address. "I will help the young generation to understand the problem of a country and to find ways to communicate and trust each other and develop beyond their national feeling other shared feelings and views for the benefit of all and for the good of Cyprus and I think our Cypriot friends can feel that as we go back to our various problems, that we certainly will understand far better the terrible problem in which they have to cope with". The schools obviously have a great responsibility in this respect and that is a message that comes to me from Andreas' paper. Well my comment on each paper won't be quite as detailed as that. Now I myself have so successfully reorganised the program of this course in my own mind, as we were all instructed to do. That I tell you without a hair on my tongue, which is a Welsh phraze, literary translated – without a hair on my tongue. That the next item in our program was Ben Ukeje's masterly analysis of changes contest of the school administration and management in Nigeria and George Baron's very perceptive comment in which he brought out and generalized points which are implicit in Ben's exposition. It brought an excellent combination and again we have both issues of decentralization and the need of principals with sound leadership and the necessary professional education and training. Almost casually and without further comment Ben linked the changes in the local government management system to the end of the military regime and successful return of the country to civilian rule after 13 years of the military. The modesty. If I were a Negerian, I would be shouting it from the house-tops and perhaps dancing in the street as some of us were dancing in the Greek Tavern the other night. But certainly what has happened in Nigeria in the last few months is of tremendous significance for Nigeria as a whole and particularly for education in Nigeria. It reflects great credit on the wisdom and political maturity both of the Nigerian military and of the civilian politicians. Over a period of eighteen months there was a gradual relaxation with several commissions working on a new constitution, new doctoral arrangements at state and federal levels, the reconstitution of political parties and the relaxation of censorship. There were some electoral problems, but they were resolved and the change-over took place on the 1st of October as planned. The soldiers went back to their barracks and the military bureaucracy dissolved itself in favour of democratic government at every level and the rest of the world which would certainly have announced and in greater tension to a military takeover with grand headlights hardly noticed a miracle had taken place. It so happened that I was again in Nigeria in November for about 6 weeks after the new civilian government had taken office and excited taxi-drivers and waiters in restaurants when they found the foreigner who took some interest in the situation, were beside themselves with joy in telling them what had happened in their country. Many people told them that they hadn't believed it would happen. This is the exciting social context of education in Nigeria to-day and the new opportunities for local government reform in education had taken place within that situation. A situation which had progressed further by the time the international intervisitation takes place in Nigeria 1982 and I would like to wish well on our behalf in this conference to Ben Ukeje and to the standing committee, to the action committee in Nigeria in the tremendous job that they have got to prepare for that occasion in 1982. Everything in concluding my comment in Ben's paper that I believe it is right that our two opening papers should have been rooted in the complex, practical problems of particular societies from which we all have much to learn. That was quite clear from the response in the discussion which followed both of these papers and I think this conference in the kind of questions it has asked has played an important part in the total experience of us all. We have been immersed in the varied realities, the stubborn facts with which the managers of change have to contend. A fitting prelude therefore to the contrasting and scholarly theoretically based discussion of the management of change in Robin Farquaar's presentation "New Wine in old bottles" to which I now turn showing a rare flare for the recognition of good wine Robin took us on a quick tour of the major models of change and listed the main obstacles to renovation in education including the resistance of teachers who again are unsure of themselves and the organizational impediments of bureacracies which, unlike the Nigerian Military, show no signs to yielding lace to the more democratic and repre-

302

sentative structure. Following Ross Thomas' discussion in the 10P 1974, he consider the organizational development approach to change in term of three sets of characteristics which I won't go into detail myself now, and then took on board Chin and Benn's well knon typology of change of strategies as rational empirical, normalitive re-educative, power-coersive and then went onto Jack Culbertson's differentiation between internal and external linking agents. It was late one night in bed after one of these marvelous social occasions that I was doing my homework here on this particular thing and I nearly shot out of bed Robin, when I came to one paragraph when I found non-violence mentioned as a power coersive strategy and on reflection I can see that it can be so on occasions, but I would have thought that non-violence as practised by Gandhi and Martin Luther King and presumably by Christ on the cross involved as strong normative re-educative commitment and that any cersion of by the weak on the strong would be somewhat minimal compared with that. Again that was the comment that I read in the passage. You see why now I had to have the opportunity to reply to you one at a time, because I'm sure you don't want me just to say – "I agree with absolutely everything that everybody said." Now in fact with regard to this paper, though I think it was an excellent exposition of the change strategies, I must admit to having a more central concern or unease about the language assumptions of the management of changed theorists which was faithfully reported in Robin's paper, though I must myself confess at the same time that I myself have used these various typologies on occasions. There seems often to be an unspoken assumption that change agent who obstinacy or whatever combination of power coersive re-educative and rational empirical strategies the state agent sees fit to employ. I'm exaggerating of course to make a point what I'm arguing against is the arrogance, the inter-actual huberis of the change wizard for whom participation and staff involvement are simply manipulative devices skilfully used to mask the fact that basic decisions have been pre-determined. This of course is the very point that Robin himself made in the discussion when in reply to a question of the handling of the resistant school principal, an inspector or other change agent, one needs to have the authenticity, as Robin put it, to recognize that on the particular issue which may be under discussion, it is just possible, that the aukward school principal may have been right and that you the super audient or the change agent may be wrong i.e. that if you are an inspector you should allow the interpersonal approach to work both ways. This is a point which Robin, in the discussion clearly made and I felt I wished he had put that in the paper because Robin himself was completely sound on this point. But it seems to me a point, which often does not come out very clearly in the writings of the managers of change inspite of the extent of the discussion of participation. Now the participation tends to sound as though it is intended simply to be something manipulative to reduce somebody else's resistance to change or to allow for the possiblitity that one opens one's own mind to the points being made by the poor fellow whose whole life style may be trying to change. And I see in my paper taht I have used another example here. You need I say to be open yourself to the possibility of rational empirical persuasion and to be normatively re-educated refraining from power-coersion on your part. You will be in an honourable position. It was after or before he came to Cyprus with Barnabus that St. Paul was seeking to change the Christians by power coersive methods, was himself on the road to Damascus, changed by a combination of rational empirical and normative re-educative influences.

Through his emphasis on authenticity, Robin showed that He is sound on this point. Many of the good points I taught came up in the discussion of Robin's paper. Before we move on, let me just mention one. Robin's point that for change to be effective, the teachers themselves need to be convinced of the need for the change and that then to ibvolve them in that change is a potent means of improving teacher moral. Again, there were echos of that issue on a number of occasions in our conference. The present can't wait. Competence is needed by the princiles now to move onto Dr. Francis Chetcurris paper. My heart warmed to Dr. Chetcutti when he said he was speaking as an ex-headmaster and was sorry to be so. It's a feeling that I've often had myself. This conference whatever else it has done, has highlighted this point about the urgency of improving competency at a time when educational systems depend so heavily on the heads of schools. Whereas in the previous session we have been mainly concerned with the needs of teaching staff and principals and even inspectors to be prepared to change. Dr. Chetcutti gave us another perspective or change. The schools themselves should be prepared to be an instrument of change in relation to their pupils and within their society. Schools he said must re-gain their vitality as a factor of change while retaining their roots in society's customs and traditions. The heads must themselves make the world of school with the world of work. It is they who are responsible of preparing their students to be full and responsible members and I

304

quote "of a fast-changing society". The competencies required include those of a traditional head but those are not sufficient. A head needs to be a businessman as often the biggest protractor in the area so part of his training program could be attachment with selective sections in business or industry. George Baron and I have seen this successfully happening on shorter term basis in Swedish training programs for school heads, but I'm less happy about Dr. Chetcutti's suggestion that good school managers might be recruited from outside the education system. It would be an exceptional person from outside who'd quickly be able to satisfy two other of Dr. Chetcutti's further requirements. Firstly, creating a climate in the administrative structure for continuous evaluation of change, uniting in this effort experienced teachers, and new teachers with enthusiasm to balance the lack of experience and also the other requirement of involving in this process the students themselves. In this conference if I'm not mistaken, it is in this passage of Dr. Chetcutti's address that attention was most strongly given to the importance of participation of the students. I think George Baron also remined us that education and administration was really about the children and not simply about the structure of school. So this is clearly an issue which is really important and again there was a personal reference that came to my own mind, that two years ago, I examined a PHD thesis in Nigeria which showed in particular that the degree of congruence in the expectations of principals and students for the role of the principle was significantly related to the level of studnet conflict behaviour and there was a fair amount of student conflict behaviour in Nigerian Schools, but where there was complete congruence or nearly complete congruence in the appreciation of what the role of the head was between the students and the principals themselves, there was far less conflict behaviour and in schools where the idea of the students of how the head should behave were very different from the ideas of the head himself. The study showed an urgent need to improve communication and inter-action between the students and the school administration. That brings me to the two papers related to the school of the future. First of all the paper by Tom Bone "the principal of the future". A fascinating, futuristic study of the principal of the future. Tom stated quite frankly that he was an optimist and given his optimistic stance one cannot implore the verb and the imagination with which he stretched out the broad outline of his vision of a school principal of the year 2.000. Similarly I have to congratulate the groups which in the second half of that morning entered into the spirit of the exercise, themselves making imaginative leaps into the future, developing profiles and drafting adverisements for the principals, preparing talks for the parents and agendas for discussion with the directors of education of that time. The point that struck me forcibly was how similar in their essentials were the projected skills of attitude with those which are required for school principals to-day – a point confirmed in Tom's address in the correspondence which he found between his proposed grouping of skills and those offered by Robin Farguhar for the principals of the mid–70s. The durability over time of the essential qualities required was perhaps the most valuable lesson to be learned from the exercise and was one which Tom as a good teacher probably intended us to learn. I would like to suggest a further exercise which we might carry out as we fly back to our own country which would reinforce Tom's point about the schools functioning as a unifying point in society extending the concept from the part of the world in which the school principal operates to the wider society of the world community. What I suggest is that we sketch out a less optimistic scenario in which we cannot assume so easily the differences between nations will be less than they are to-day over the gap between more developed and less developed nations, will necessarily be significantly diminished. Studies by the World Bank and by United Nations agencies suggest the standards of life can only be raised to an acceptable extent in all the less developed countries if the more developed countries are prepared to hold back from increasing and possibly to some extent may need to decrease their consumption of energy and hence their standard of living. Again on a world scale, it seems to be a matter of the game, I don't know whether you remember it, a game that Tom mentioned to us in which one has various bits and pieces which one can build together to form rectangles and some rectangles given to some people can be completed rather easily but there are other rectangles which other people will not be able to complete at all unless those who have completed the easy rectangles are prepared to have them broken up and through the reorganization everyone ultimately will be able to complete all the rectangles, atomized in a school set-up. What I'm suggesting is that the same kind of game is really applicable to World Unity. This was something mentioned, well not its application by Graham Williams through his presentation yesterday. And it may be a challenge for the educators in the world community as we regard it a challenge for the teachers of education administration in regard to the staff within a particular school may well be a matter for the educators to help the wider society to organize itself in such a way that those of us in the more developed countries are prepared to break up our cosy rectangles in order that all due course may be erected into rectangles in a world wide commonwealth body such as ours, I believe that to make a reality of education for international understanding and community education is a constant challenge for our school principals. It is only so that the gap between the economic and social conditions for more developped and less developed countries can beging to be diminished. So in our list of this honourous awesome burden which we put on school principal that will be yet further a burden which we may well feel that if the less optimistic view of the year 2.000 prevails may be a very necessary part of school and of education. As I told you there would be a few hobby horses. And then the other rough, general paper that we've had, monitoring the schools for the future by Mr. Nicholson. You remember that refering particularly to the schools of the Carribean Robert Nicholson was less ambitious perhaps in his form of projection to the year 2.000 than was Tom Bone. He saw present trends as not likely to change significantly during the forseeable future but predicted an increase in the monitoring of schools by politicians, by personnel in the education service and by parents and the community. In developing a model of process evaluation he adopted a functional approach which is perhaps the usual kind of approach to apply in this instance, and it was interesting that this functional approach was derived from Tom Greenfield. Now I really say this because as you know Tom Greenfield himself has several books and papers written in this style before he had his commersion on his road to Damascus when he saw the phenological light and I looked carefully through whether or not later in the paper that something of this might also be reflected in the paper itself. But perhaps wisely Robert kept steadfastly to the pre-Damascus conquering field and his paper was no doubt clearer and simpler from doing that, less complicated by ignoring Greenfield's later writings. Individual self evaluation, small group or team evaluation and central or system evaluation are briefly considered in the paper and there is an interesting account of the training of education administrators in the Carribean.

Many detailed questions as you will remember followed the address and it was in that discussion that Robert argued strongly that principals should be given a great deal of responsibility for monitoring their own performance. This is a matter which came up at several of the sessions later, as you will be reminded after the commercial break. If perhaps we could have an opportunity Robin, if that's all rights for about 10 minutes to have people react or to make a point.

(Unknown speaker)- A small comment regarding the remarks on Mr. Anastassiades' paper in connection with the teaching of the language of each community to the other. I don't know if it is within your knowledge, but the English School to which you referred had it as its basic policy to teach Turkish to the Greeks and Greek to the Turkish. Unfortunately this was not followed by many other schools. I'm simply mentioning this just in case you didn't know that at the English School this policy had been followed. Thank you.

Mr. Hughes — Well now I don't think that we will want to look at the ten papers which came up yesterday, quite in so much detail. I hope that the speakers of those paper will excuse me though I have read all the papers, I haven't had the time to give them quite the amount of attention I gave the other papers. I want to divide them into three groups where I see some kind of connection between the papers. I have a feeling that there are many cross connections, but one has to connect them somehow. First of all there were what I regard as three fairly factual accounts which again are valuable. I think there are three factual accounts as I say which again are valuable in highlighting important facets of the work of the school and of the principal. Firstly I began with a brief reference to a fascinating account of the school of the deaf in Nicosia by the principal Mr. Markou. As many of you will not have been present at this, I think it does deserve some, at least, brief reference to some of the detail. It's a modest and graphic account of how Mr. Markou became aware of the special needs of the deaf children and took the initiative in doing something about it. This meant not only giving the children a rewarding educational experience, and he doesn't go into much detail about the actual work of the school, but also accepting some responsibility for the rehabilitation and care of these children in their community when they have grown up and have to leave school and the security it has to offer. This aspect of the work lead Mr. Markou to the creation in 1961 of the cooperative society deaf persons limited. But Mr. Markou in addition to his other responsibilities as a principal of his school becoming secretary general of the company. Proudly Mr. Markou is able to claim that no deaf persons skilled or unskilled even those with multiple handicaps have ever been refused employment in the cooperative, with its furniture factory and dressmaking and weaving departments. And all this is related to the school of the deaf. Behind it all we are aware, though Mr. Markou through modesty does not make it explicit, of a school principal as inovator and entrepreneur. The with the ideas and with the strength of purpose to make his vision a reality. So to-day the co-op is the responsibility of a committee elected from the working deaf members. In the developing countries, it occurs to me there must be many situations in which the school principal in unusual circumstances if he has the commitment and skills can be a leader and initiator rather than the passive functionary of an insensitive bureaucracy. From that point of view there is a much wider interest in that paper than simply to look at a school for the deaf. My second paper still in Cyprus Mr. Theodorou, the principal of the primary school gives us an insight into curriculum planning for primary education but he considers in terms of the program of studies of experiences and of services and the hidden curriculum, Mr. Theodorou adopts a rational planning model involving a mixture of ideas from the plauden report in Britain lended with much control by the inspectors on matters of selection of content and evaluation. Curriculum evaluation is in the hands of the inspectors and seems that the classic objectives models at the present time is proving acceptable both to ministry officials and to the teachers. This again mirrors a mission in many centralized systems, particularly in the developing world. In his final paragraph, Mr. Theodorou shows that he is aware that there may be some limitations as well as strengths in the use of objectives in curriculum planning. My third account is that of the address by Mr. Chaurasia who is additional director of the ministry of Education of Bhopal in India, on the principal in India. Again using a systems approach, Dr. Chaurasia gives a general indication of the work and stand point of the national institute of educational planning and administration and then gives a useful detailed account of an in-service training course for Secondary School principals in Madhya Pradesh and of a survey of secondary School principals of that state. One of the conclusions is that there is an urgent need for helping secondary school principals to keep in touch with the inovations and new developments in education. But a point which doesn't come in the paper but which was discussed by some of us at lunch to-day was that the difficulty that does occur either if the heads don't want to come or if the heads do come and go away saying "that really was a wonderful course", but do nothing about it when they go back to their school. That kind of situation can so easily occur and in our discussion at the lunch break, the feeling of the four of us that were together was the way to do something about this was probably again through informing the principals themselves to try to find out what they feel should be in the course. Those then are the first three papers which are firmly grounded in the particular culture to which they refer. That leads on naturally to the second group of papers. I put four papers in my middle category. These are papers which deal with or have implications for the professional development of taff and heads. First I want to refer to Dr. Mellor's papers, Dr. Mellor of Monash University, Melbourn. It was an interesting paper "technology of the future risk or riches" which perhaps does echo one or two issues that are discussed by Tom Bone in his paper. And Dr. Mellor's paper both makes out a case for computer technology and gives an informative account of a class on data processing and information retreaval in the program on education administration at Monash University. He considers conicula and administrative implications and concludes that current developments and I quote "will highten a sense of participation in the process of inovation adoption and will work ultimately to lessen the uncertainty of the risk associated with technological change." Then there s a paper by Dr. Robin Brayne, co-ordinator of the North Vancouver School District on "principal and teacher professional development – some strategies". Dr. Brayne in his paper considers the organizational and structural constraints on teaching and proceeds to emphasize again the key role of the principal in staff development and I quote "the more principals due to their schools and systems of inter-dependent roles and priorities with common concern to address as opposed to collections of individual teachers with unique cast of concerns and training needs, the more they will be able to galvanize the staff towards the adoption of inovated procedures." This is the team teaching that I mentioned of leadership. Leadership behaviour that encourages teachers to establish joint ownership of issues and collaboratively develop strategies to address them. Again the importance of involving those whom one is seeking to influence. Thirdly in this category, I turn to the paper by Geoffrey Lyons, principal lecturer of the Anglian Regional Management Centre of North East London Polytechnic which is entitled "school evaluation strategies in schools". In this paper, the strongest argument in favour of self assessment by teachers is regarded being as not to assist external evaluation or accountability, but to provide a stimulus for staff development; the team building that I mentioned to which Robin Brayne referred. By this time, I was getting a bit short of time and instead of writing out my quotations, I've got a reference to the actual paper. I just wanted to quote just a couple of sentences from the paper which gives a flavour of it. Geoffrey says "in itself, self assessment is a performative process implicitly incorporating a staff development aspect. It will reveal the need for the involvement of staff in running the school and is thus more likely to lead to staff working together as a team and to communication between department, greater understanding more common courtesy and so on." Exactly the same sort of point in relation to the staff as I was making a moment ago in relation how to get the principals interested in the courses which are given to them, Geoffrey goes on to say it is implied here that it is an essential function of the head teacher not to be concerned solely with the day to day running of the school, but with its development and leading it towards its future tasks. Ot is self-evident that no head teacher can assume such a role without being able to assess the stage of development that the school has reached. Like the self assessment would promote a key to a continuous process of development and if schools and staffs discover themselves their own strengths and weaknesses, they're more likely to be susceptible to change. Some pilot instruments have been produced by Geoffrey Lyons and working party as exemplers of what is possible in terms of self-education and much of the paper is concerned with these documents and the advantages and disadvantages of using self-evaluation. There is a start warning that any attempt to impose the documents from outside is likely to be counter productive and that gaining the commitment of staff through wide-range discussion is essential. The final paper in this group is one on "improving the management effectiveness of the school principal by Graham Williams of Sheffield Polytechnic and this is based on courses which he has run with colleagues at Sheffield Polytechnic. The paper begins with some discussion of education management, its organizational contents and the issues which arise in educational management. The latter gives rise to a diagnostic instrument "dion" – diagnosing individual and organizational needs" and courses, that is, courses for heads – are then based on the particular development of needs of the principals as identified by the diagnostic instruments. The last part of the paper provides a learning model which is a refinement of Cole's four stage cycle, but I won't go into detail. This learning model itself becomes part of the content of the course. We are not told of the reaction to the evaluation by members of the course but this is obviously an inovated and worth-while course of which I will certainly be glad to learn more and it's interesting to find a course like this which is a little bit different from a number of courses which have a similarity about them. Well, those then are the courses on the development of the heads and the staff that we are given in that group. And again I think you will find a great deal in common between those courses. There are three sessions to which I haven't yet referred in the case of these three papers. We come again to focus more directly on the principal of the school himself. Firstly there's a paper by Dr. Laurence Miller of the University of Queensland, Brisbane, in association with a colleague where Dr. Miller has developed a leadership desirability scale and has produced a paper which in the very best sense of the world is a technical paper. It will be of great interest to other research workers in this area because it provides more of the technical information concerning the research and sometimes given in research, papers as I sometimes found to my cost when I really try to understand how the researcher got to where he claims to have got. A scale which is developed, is in effect, a measure of the authoritariasm of the principal and this is certainly an important issue in relation to leadership though I couldn't help feeling as I read the paper that it is not, and I'm sure Laury himself will agree on the whole and I wondered whether the title was entirely appropriate to what the scale was. Again Laury I want to explain why it is relevant. Other scales are also used in the research and a data makes possible the testing of a number of hypotheses. As a result of most generators is the conformation of a hypotheses that the higher levels of educational hierarchy may be occupied by those of a relatively greater authoritarian predisposition the higher up you are in the organization, the more authoritarian you are likely to be. The research does not consider the intriguing question of whether this occurs because his more authoritarian subordinates get promoted to the higher positions of the organization or whether a change in the disposition or attitude tends to occur as one reaches the higher ridges and also incidentally as one gets old so that the anti-authoritarian subordinate eventually becomes an authoritarian super-ordinate. It seems to me that quite a bit of further research in this area could be very interesting and very rewarding. A second paper in this area is a research paper on leadership. It's a paper which involves research or leadership qualities needed by principals and inspectors, in the opinion of teachers in Cyprus and the data base is a very sizable data base. It's a paper by Dr. Papadopoulos inspector of schools in Cyprus and again shows great care in the collection and presentation of the data. Like Dr. Miller, Dr. Papadopoulos makes the question .... that he or she respects the teachers' opinions that he or she trusts them – a relation of trust between the head and the teachers. That is not so important for the principal. You might like to have, the two corresponding points are desired for the inspectors which aren't regarded as quite so important for the principals, that he or she is objective fair and responsible in evaluating the childrens' and teachers work. Evaluation of the inspector is more important than evaluation in the case of the head. And the last one he or she knows very well the schools' environment and makes suggestions on the basis of a concrete condition which prevails in the teachers work. That the inspector is expected to a greater extent than the principal to be the person who mediates between the school-teacher and the outside man. Some expectation comes from the heads to be more effectively involved with the teachers and pupils which is sensible and inspectors to be more objective and concerned with the external environment. Generally the teachers however appear both in the case of principals and inspectors to attach more importance to the person orientated and to the task orientated aspect of leadership. And I come to the very final paper and though this is not a Miss World competition where one is arranging the ten people concerned in a sort of order of merit. There has been nothing like that here. Perhaps there is a sense in which Len Watson in his paper which is entitled "managerial discretion" – a key concept for the principal does touch something which comes very close to the central area of the concerns of this conference. The paper, I don't think you could claim to be terribly original. I think Len himself disclaims any such claim in the paper, but I think it deploys the arguments in favour of the control of schools by the central bureacracy through the operation of rules and then deals perceptibly with the limitations of rules and argues for the need for discretion for people in the organization. He argues in fact that even in the centralized system there is a considerable measure of autonomy. In fact teachers and principals do have discretion. The facts of their situation imposes this upon them. They simply cannot unquestioningly act according to the rules, for to do so would bring them into conflict with pupils parents and each other. Rather, the experienced principal has developed ways of coping with the situations which arise by bending the rules or occasions on his own behalf or that of his staff or turning a blind eye and obtaining minimum visibility. He doubts whether the bureacratic model is effective in its goal of achieving uniformity and minimum standards and he argues in favour of a goal orientated rather than a rules orientated system. My own legal training makes me just a little uneasy at this point. I think at the way the two types of system are differentiated, because there is always the difficult when you do have rules and that you say "Well I'm going to use my discretion as to whether the rule is going to apply in this case or not", but in a sense that one is perhaps saying that there is no rule at all except when one wants for some reason of his own to say that there is a rule. So there are I think some difficulties in clarifying the differences between goal-orientated rather than rule-orientated system. But still having said that I'm very much in sympathy with the enlargement of autonomy for the principal which is proposed. It seems to be very much in line with a great deal that has gone on in this conference in the last few days. Len supplements this from his own experience, but at this stage of the day, I shall stay with those. He makes one other point which I think is valid and which I have heard come up in discussion elsewhere. The point that any change towards greater autonomy for the head changing the school towards greater autonomy for the teachers is something which must be properly prepared for. You don't throw people in at the deep end without any preparation other wise you will feel that insecurity which has come up again on several occasions and they may yearn for the more authoritatian set-ups simply because they haven't been prepared to use this kind of autonomy. If I may perhaps offer just a couple of sentences to round off. I'm reminded of the fact that in several of these papers the idea has come up very clearly that the school principal must both be the manager on the enterprise and also the professional leader. It is part of the challenge of the job to intergate these two aspects to see that what I myself have called the chief executive part of the role is supported rather than diminished by the leading professional aspect of the role and my hope is that as we go back to our homes from the experience of this conference, that the memories we will have from these papers and from the discussions that have been prompted by these papers will help us, whether we are teachers of educational management or practitioners of educational management to get better intergration between these two aspects of the job of the school principal.